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SIMPLIFIED GRAMMAR

OF

HINDŪSTĀNĪ, PERSIAN

AND

ARABIC.

BY

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PREFACE.

THE object of this Collection of Grammars is to provide the learner with a concise but practical introduction to the various languages, and at the same time to furnish students of comparative philology with a clear and comprehensive view of their structure. The attempt to adapt the somewhat cumbrous grammatical system of the Greek and Latin to every other tongue has introduced a great deal of unnecessary difficulty into the study of languages. Instead of analyzing existing locutions and endeavouring to discover the principles which regulate them, writers of grammars have for the most part constructed a framework of rules on the old lines and tried to make the language of which they were treating fit into it. Where this proves impossible the difficulty is met by lists of exceptions and irregular forms, thus burdening the pupil's mind with a mass of details of which he can nake no practical use.

In these grammars the subject is viewed from a different standpoint: the structure of each language is vi PREFACE.

carefully examined, and the principles which underlie it are carefully explained; while apparent discrepancies and so-called irregularities are shown to be only natural euphonic and other changes. All technical terms are excluded unless their meaning and application is self-evident; no arbitrary rules are admitted; the old classification into declensions, conjugations, etc., and even the usual paradigms and tables, are omitted. Thus reduced to the simplest principles, the Accidence and Syntax can be thoroughly comprehended by the student on one perusal, and a few hours diligent study will enable him to analyze any sentence in the language.

The present volume is specially adapted for the requirements of Candidates for the Indian Civil Service and for the various Military and Civil Examinations in India. It will also be found an indispensable help to all who are commencing the study of Oriental languages.

It forms the first of a collection of Simplified Grammars, each containing either one or a group of two or three cognate languages, according to circumstances. The first volume consists of Hindūstānī, Persian and Arabic, the latter, though not belonging to the same family as the other two, is included because of the numerous words and locutions which these borrow from it. This

volume will be followed by Grammars of the Keltic and Slavonic languages and dialects, also of Modern Greek, of Sanscrit, Pali, Burmese, Siamese, Malay, Chinese, and Japanese,—likewise of Grammars of the most important vernaculars of Modern India. The Keltic section will contain Welsh, Gaelic, Irish, and Breton; the Slavonic section will comprise Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Bulgarian; and the Scandinavian section Icelandic, Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian. A volume on Anglo-Saxon is also in course of preparation. The Editor and Publishers, by the selection of the most competent scholars for the work, and by the greatest care in the production, hope to render this series of the utmost practical utility both to linguistic students and comparative philologists.

E. H. P.

LONDON, DECEMBER, 1881.

HINDŪSTĀNĪ, PERSIAN, AND ARABIC GRAMMAR

SIMPLIFIED.

HINDŪSTĀNĪ.

THE ALPHABET.

The Persian-Hindūstānī alphabet is a modification of the Arabic. It is written from right to left.

PRONUNCIATION.

NAME.

EQUIVALENT.

| 1 | A lif, | a, e, i, o, or u | This is the <i>spiritus lenis</i> of the Greek, a mere prop to rest an initial vowel on. |
|----|-------------------|------------------|--|
| ب | Be, | \boldsymbol{b} | |
| پ | Pe, | p | As in English. |
| ىت | Te, | t | A soft dental t like the Italian. |
| ٿ | Ta, | ţ | A hard palatal t. |
| ث | Se, | §) | |
| き | $J\bar{\imath}m,$ | j | As in English. |
| ट | Che, | ch | |
| τ | Ħв, | ķ | An aspirate strongly breathed out from the chest: |
| Ċ | Khe, | <u>kh</u> | Like ch in Welsh or Gaelic, or the German ch as pronounced in Switzerland. |

| NAME | . EQUIVALENT. | PRONUNCIATION. |
|------------------|----------------------|---|
| s Dal | d | A soft dental d as in Italian. |
| Dai ٿ | l, ḍ | A hard palatal d . |
| i Zāl | !, <u>z</u> | As in English. |
| ر R_{θ} , | r | A distinctly pronounced r. |
| ; Ra, | r · | A hard palatal r. |
| j Zθ, | æ | As z in English. |
| ; Zhe | e, zh | Like the French j in jour, or our s in pleasure. |
| س Sīn | , 8 |) |
| ش Shī | in, sh | As in English. |
| چې چې | đ, ș |) |
| غ Zād | ł, " | As z in English. |
| J Toe | ·, <u>t</u> | Properly pronounced with the tongue full |
| ن Zoe | | against the front part of the palate, but ordinarily pronounced like = and j. |
| Ain ع | a, etc. | A guttural sound only heard in Arabic: in India it is not often pronounced. |
| خ <u>G</u> h | ain, [*] gh | A guttural sound something like tł = French r grasseyé. |
| ن Fe, | f | As in English. |
| بة Ķā | f, ķ | A very guttural k, like ck in thick, only much stronger. |
| Kā, | f, k | \ |
| Gāj گ | f, g | As in English, but g is always hard be- |
| ل Lān | n, l | fore all vowels, as $g\bar{\imath}$, pronounced |
| Mi | m, m | ghee, not jee. |

| NAME. | EQUIVALENT. | PRONUNCIATION. |
|-------|------------------|--|
| Nūn, | n | As in English, but sometimes nasal at the |
| | | end of a syllable, when it sounds like |
| | | the French n in bon ; before b or f it |
| | | is sounded as m. |
| , Wāw | , w | Nearly as in English, but a little in- |
| | | clined to v. |
| ъ He | h | As in English. |
| د Ye | \boldsymbol{y} | as in English. |

These are joined to the preceding letter by prefixing a small curve or stroke, and to the following letter by removing the curve with which they all but *alif* end: thus

| DETACHED. | INITIAL. | MEDIAL. | FINAL. |
|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| ب | ر | • | <u> </u> |
| ی ن | و | • | ی ن |
| τ | > | 5 | E |
| ص | ~ | ھ | ص |
| ع | ع | * | ح |
| ف ق | و | ۵ | ف ق |
| ک | 5 | ک | ک |
| J | 1 | 7 | ل |
| ۴ | * | * | ^ |
| 8 | ۵ | ŧ | å |

if deprived of the curve would become unrecognizable; hence they do not join to the left.

The above letters are all consonants.

The vowels are 2 u (as in bull), and < a (pronounced like u in but), both written above the letter; and > x written below the letter.

Combined with |a, y|, and |a, y|, these become |aa|(a), $|aw|(\bar{u})$, $|aw|(\bar{v})$, $|aw|(\bar{v$

No word can commence with a vowel in the Arabic character: if it does the vowel is introduced by alif \(\lambda\).

When a syllable begins with a vowel, the mark - hamzeh is used to introduce it.

If the first letter of an Arabic word be a sibilant or liquid

Tashdīd doubles the letter it is placed over.

Sukūn shows that the letter it is placed over has no vowel.

Waşlah is only used over an initial alif in an Arabic word, or over the Arabic article U al, and shows that it is elided.

Maddah is placed over an initial alif and shows that it should be pronounced long, as $\bigcup \tilde{l}$ and, "to come."

the article ال is elided before it and the consonant itself doubled, as عَبُدُ ٱللَّه "awāmmu-nnās, "common people," عَبُدُ ٱللَّه "abdu-llāh, "Abdullah" (the servant of Allah).

THE ACCIDENCE.

Accidence teaches us the modifications of which words are capable in order to express the various accidental circumstances of person, gender, number, time and place. Such modifications are called inflections, and extend to verbs and nouns alike.

INFLECTION.

The following are the only inflections used:

 \sqrt{a} at the end of a word shows that it is masculine.

ة ي ,, ,, ,, feminine.

 $|\bar{a}|$ when further inflected becomes $\leq \ell$.

The affixes \underline{e} \dot{e} in nouns and $\underline{e}\dot{n}$ in verbs express the asculine plural; when they are further inflected they become $o\dot{n}$.

يان an or يان iyān express the feminine plural.

لتن لا للنظام الكتى كا كتا لا للنظام الكتى كا كتا لا للنظام الكتى كا كتى كا للنظام الكتى كا كتى كا للنظام الكتى كا للنظام الكتى كا المائية ال

Where words end in a consonant the change of \ to \cup and

ج cannot take place, for the simple reason that there is no \ to change.

But they can and do add ...,; as

mardon kā, of men. مرد ون کا mardon kā, of men.

CASES OF NOUNS.

The cases of nouns are made by adding the following particles, called post-positions:

V kā expressing genitive case or a dependent relation.

 \checkmark $k\bar{o}$ for the objective case.

ني ne for the agent.

These will be explained later on in the syntax.

se for the instrumental or ablative case.

men locative "in."

par ,, "on."

"up to." بن tak پن نول

and the prefix (a) ai for the vocative.

PRONOUNS.

The pronouns are:

مين main, I. تو tū or مين tain, thou. تم tum, you.

In these $\int h\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ or $\bar{a}ra$ is substituted for $\int k\bar{a}$ to express the genitive; as

ميرا mérā = mai(n)ārā, of me. المنابع téra = tai(n)ārā, of thee. مارا hamārā, of us. tumhārā, of you.

and تين become مين become عين tujh in their inflected forms.

The other pronouns are formed as follows:

The syllable y vat the beginning expresses the near demonstrative.

,, ∫ wŭ ,, ,, remote ,,
,, ≤ k ,, is interrogative.
,, ≠ j ,, is relative.
,, is correlative.

Thus. taun, جون yih, sowuh, کون kaun, جون jaun, یہ this who? who, which that same that tahān, تبان yahān, تبان wahān, كبار kahān, ببان where wherever there here there tidhar, تدهر jidhar, جدهر kidhar, کدهر tidhar ادهر tidhar ادهر thither whither whither hither thither t'yūn, جيون xỳūn, کيون wūn, وون yūn, جيون t'yūn, يون thus how 80 itnā, اتنا utnā, کتنا kitnā, چتنا jitnā, تتنا titnā, this (so) many, that (so) many, how many, as many, or so many, or or much or much much as much اب ab, (ت المعاقب العالم العا that time when now when then luul aisā, luu, waisā, luu kaisā, luu jaisā, luu taisā, so (like this) so (like that) how (like what) as (like which) so (like the same) In their formatives, i.e. the form assumed by them before a post-position, کون yih, so wuh, کون kaun, become آس is, آس is, آس is, اس kis. So, too, جو jo, he who, and کس so, its correlative, make jis and tis.

The reflexive pronouns are: اپنا) genitive apnā, objective اپنا $\bar{a}p$ ko, etc), "self," and تئیں $ta\bar{\imath}n$, "self," undeclined. (پا $\bar{a}p$ sometimes means "your honour;" its genitive is then آپ کا $\bar{a}p$ $k\bar{a}$).

Post-positions.

The relation which is expressed in other languages by a preposition, "putting something before a word," is in Hindūstānī expressed by a post-position, "putting something after it." These are first the signs of the cases already given, the rest are merely nouns of time or place in their inflected form without of or place; e.g. "us wakt, "That time" = "then;" and wakt, "In the direction of the man." Jihat being feminine, the kā becomes kī to agree with it. This concord is always observed.

GENDER.

Words necessarily implying females are feminine. We have seen that a feminine is made from a masculine in \dot{a} by turning it into $\bar{\imath}$ (p 5). Other feminine terminations are \dot{a} sh, \ddot{b} t, \ddot{b} hat. Of course there are exceptions, and these are mostly foreign words, where the letter which would otherwise

show the word to be feminine belongs to the root, as the Arabic wakt, "time," which is masculine.

All Arabic words of the form "issault taf'īl," are feminine. Some words are arbitrary in their gender, just as in English a ship is feminine. These must be learnt by practice. Words not included in the above categories are masculine.

COMPARISON.

This is made by putting the noun with which comparison is made in the ablative or instrumental case with عند عود علا على عود الله على على المعالى على على المعالى على المعالى المعالى

Sometimes, for greater clearness, the word ziyādeh, "more," is used;" or the Persian comparative, as bih-tar, "better," may be introduced.

The superlative is made by adding سب sab, "all," as sab larkon se achchhā, "Best of all the boys."

NUMERALS.

The numerical figures are $\frac{1}{1}$ $\frac{7}{2}$ $\frac{7}{3}$ $\frac{7}{4}$ $\frac{5}{6}$ $\frac{7}{8}$ $\frac{7}{8}$ $\frac{9}{9}$. They are written from left to right as with us, and are combined in the same way as our own; $eg. \frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{4}$

The Numerals in Hindūstānī are not easy to learn, as they seem to have a different form for each number up to a hundred. This difference is, however, only apparent, as in their original

¹ See the Section on Arabic Grammar.

form they are as regular as our own. Without, however, going into the philological question, I will show how they may be approximately ranged like the English numerals.

First we have the digits 1 to 10, closely resembling those of other Aryan languages.

Then the "teens," represented by āra.

Then the "tys," represented by īs.

At 40 the tys become irregular, and we must learn more, namely, التر at for the "ty" of 50, الله attar for that of 70, نوى assī for that of 80, and السي nave for that of 90.

19, 29, etc., up to 79, are expressed by 20-1, 30-1, and so on.

| | | | ı | teen aran |
|----|-------------|---|----|---------------------------------------|
| 1 | ایک ه. | | 11 | اگاره) igārah. (کیاره) giyārah. |
| 2 | ى do. | | 12 | باره bārah, be-ārah (be, |
| | | | | cf. Latin bis). |
| 3 | تين tīn. | | 13 | تيرة terah. |
| 4 | جار chār. | | 14 | چودر s چودر chaudrah. |
| 5 | پانې pānch. | | 15 | پندره pandrah. |
| 6 | - chha. | | 16 | سوله solah. |
| 7 | سات sāt. | | 17 | satrah. سترة |
| 8 | قب āţh. | | 18 | athārah. النهارة |
| 9 | naw. نو | | 19 | unīs, one from (b)īs. |
| 10 | سى das. | ı | 20 | بيس bīs=bĕ-īs=twain-ty. |

| | ty | | and the same of th | ty | 78 |
|------------|---------------------|---|--|---------------|-------------------------------|
| 0.1 | ایکیس | (ekīs. | 41 | ايكتاليس | ektālīs. |
| 21 | ايديس | ikkīs. | 42 | بياليس | be-ālīs. |
| 22 | باثيس | bā-īs. | 43 | تينتاليس | $tent\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}s.$ |
| 23 | تيئيس | te-īs. | 44 | چوالیس | chau-ālis. |
| 24 | چوبیس | chaubīs. | 45 | پينتاليس | paintālīs. |
| 25 | پچيس | pachīs. | 46 | چهياليس | chhe-ālīs. |
| 2 6 | چهبیس | chhabbīs. | | سينتاليس | |
| 27 | ستائيس | $satar{a}$ - $ar{\imath}s$. | 10 | ارتاليس ا | $artar{a}lar{\imath}s.$ |
| 28 | الهائيس | aţhā-īs. | 40 | اٿهتاليس لم | $atht\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}s.$ |
| 29 | انتيس | $unt\bar{\imath}s$, one from $t\bar{\imath}s$. | 49 | • | unchās, one from chās (5 ty). |
| 30 | تيس | $t\bar{\imath}s = t + \bar{\imath}s = three-ty$ | 50 | - 1 | pachās. |
| 31 | ایکتیس | | | (5)ty alterna | |
| 32 | | | 51 | | ekāwan. |
| | | battīs. | 52 | - | bāwan. |
| 33 | تينتيس | | 53 | ترپن | tirpan. |
| 34 | چونتیس | | 54 | چون | chauwan. |
| 3-5 | پينتيس | paintīs. | 55 | پچپن | pachpan. |
| 36 | چهتیس | chhattīs. | 56 | چهپن | chhappan. |
| 37 | سينتيس | | 57 | ستاون | satāwan. |
| 38 | اٿهتيس) اڙتيس ا | aţhtīs. | | 1 111 | |
| • | اڙتيس ا | aṛtīs. | 58 | الهاون | aţhāwan. |
| 39 | انتاليس انيجاليس | untālīs. | 59 | انساٿھ | unsāțh, one from |
| 00 (| انچاليس | unchālīs. | | | 6 (ty). |
| 40 | چاليس | $ch\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}s = ch\bar{a}r + \bar{\imath}s$ = 4 ty. | 60 | ساٿه | sāţħ. |

| | (6)ty $sath$ | $(8)ty$ $\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$ |
|----|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 61 | ایکسته eksath. | 81 ايكاسى <i>ekās</i> ī. |
| 62 | bāsaṭħ. | . <i>be-ās</i> ī بياسى 82 |
| 63 | tirsath. | 83 تراسى <i>tirās</i> ī. |
| 64 | چونستې chaunsath. | ehaurāsī. چوراسى 84 |
| 65 | painsath. | 85 پچاسى <i>pachāsī</i> . |
| 66 | وتسایعی chhe-asath. | 86 چهياسي chhe-āsī. |
| 67 | سرسته sarsaţh. | 87 ستاسى <i>satāsī</i> . |
| 68 | مرسته ارسته) arsath. | athäsī. الهاسي 88 |
| 00 | اتهسته athsath. | nawāsī. نواسي 89 |
| 69 | unhattar, one انهتر | 90 نوی nawwe. |
| | from $hattar(7) ty$. | 90 nawe |
| 70 | sattar. ستر | 91 ايكانو <i>ى</i> ekānawe. |
| | $(7)ty hattar = sattar^{1}$ | 92 بانو <i>ي bānawe</i> . |
| 71 | ekhattar. ایکہتر | برانوى 93 ترانوى 93 |
| 72 | bahattar. بہتر | .chaurānawe چورانوی 94 |
| 73 | tihattar. تہتر | (sailsi nanchānawe. |
| 74 | chauhattar. چوهتر | 95 کے انوی pachānawe. |
| 75 | pachhattar. | 96 جهيانوي chhe-ānawe. |
| 76 | chhihattar. چهېتر | 87 ستانوی satānawe. |
| 77 | sathattar. ستهتر | aţhānawe. اٿھانوي 98 |
| 78 | athattar. اتهتر | (salii nanānawe. |
| 79 | unāsī, one from | 99 ما nawānawe. |
| 00 | assī. | |
| 80 | اسى a887. | .sau سو) .sai سی ا |

¹ The s and h being interchangeable, see p. 14.

13 VERBS.

The ordinal numbers are:

and the rest by adding of wan, e.g. بيسوال bīswān, "twentieth." The termination of wan, when inflected, becomes e.w. wen.

Fractions are:

1. Substantives.

paun پاو paun a quarter. paun one quarter less. paune pauneقط قطائق عنوا قطائق قطا as an adjective). "

derh, one and a half. arhā-ī, two and a half. ارهائي sawā-ī, one & a quarter. سوائي

2. Adjectives.

VERBS.

Verbs only consist of a root which is combined with various participial affixes and the auxiliary verb to be.

The simplest form of the auxiliary verb is that which expresses "being" for each of the persons. This is generally known as the "substantive verb."

SUBSTANTIVE VERB.

The following comparative table shows the forms assumed by this verb in the principal Aryan languages:

| Persian. | ZEND. | Sanskrit. | PRAKRIT. | HINDUSTANI. |
|----------|----------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| ام | ahmi | र्श्वास | ám i | ون |
| ای | ahi | र्श्वास | asi | ی |
| است | açti | र्श्वास | adi (ati) | ي (|
| ايم | mahi | स्रम् | āmo | ین |
| اید | çta | ख | aha | و |
| اند | heñ t i | सीन्त | anti | ین |

In Greek and Latin these become $\epsilon\iota\mu\iota$, etc., and sum, etc., it being a philological law that the h and s interchange.

When the Hindustānī forms of the above are not affixed they take a h before it, as $h\bar{u}\dot{n}$, $h\bar{u}\dot{n}$, etc.

PARTS OF THE VERB.

The parts of verbs are the following:

Mere Abstract or ون (and its inflections عن , مي , as Indefinite Action,) گِرون girun, I falling, etc.

Actual Future, \(\mathbf{g}\bar{a}.

and the participial affixes, viz.:

One doing, $\cup ta$, all inflected like nouns. One done, $\cup a$,

and the past tense of the substantive verb \in tha, "was."

All the parts of the verb are but combinations of the above. For the different numbers, persons, and genders we have merely to alter the termination $|\bar{a}|$ into \bar{i} for feminine, \bar{e} for mascuen for plural وين en for plural masculine, and ين in for plural feminine, according to the rule given on p. 5.

The root in its simplest form is used for the imperative singular, as پکه "write thou." To this we may add the iyē, which makes the command into a request. chāhiye, from چاهئا chāhnā, "to wish," is used in the sense of "one ought," "we should," "let us," etc.)

THE TENSES OF THE VERB.

Root Write."

likh.

Write.

main likhūn, I (may be) writing.

هم لكيس ham likhen, We (may be) writing.

main likhūngā, I writing-shall.

main likhtā hūn, I (masc.) one-writing am.

main likhtā thā, I one-writing was.

main-ne likhā,

I wrote.

main-ne likhā hai, I wrote is, i.e. the state "I

wrote" is now a fact = I have written.

main-ne likhā thā, I wrote was, i e. the state
"I wrote" was the fact=
I had written.

main-ne likhā hogā, I wrote will be, i e. the state
"I wrote" will take place
=I shall have written.

From which examples we see that the tenses of the verbs are formed merely by combinations of the words given above (p. 14). The construction with the agent in in will be explained further on.

By adding the adverbial particle هِي or the termination وَ وَ الله word becomes emphatic, as يه يه وَ الله $is\bar{\imath}$), "this very " so $hot\bar{a}$, "being," in its inflected form of هوتا hote, becomes, with the addition of هوتا هوتا hote $h\bar{\imath}=$ "In the condition of one actually being," i.e. "Just as he was doing or becoming something:" e.g. " $dekh-t\bar{a}$, "seeing," دیکهتا هی $dekh-t\bar{a}$, "seeing," $dekh-t\bar{a}$, "At the very moment of his seeing."

The Hindūstānī language is very dramatic, never employing the indirect narration, and the speaker is always as it were pointing to what he is talking about. So when it is required to express a hypothesis and its consequence, it is sufficient to mention the two things, and place them as it were side by side: thus the two things, and place them as it were side by side: thus أو مين جاتا wuh aisā kartā to main jātā, "If he were to do so I would go," lit. "If he so doing then I going." Hence the use of the present participle, e.g. كرتا المعادية على المعادية ا

IRREGULAR VERBS.

Of course some verbs will not at first sight appear to form their different parts exactly after this rule, and are therefore called Irregular. As a matter of fact any apparent irregularity is only due to necessary euphonic change. For example: bkarnā, "to do," makes kiyā in the past, and marnā, "to die," makes mu-ā. This arises from the fact that the original root contained the old vowel-consonant ri, and was kri (compare the English "create"), this being hard to pronounce, becomes resolved either into ar or i: now skarā (though it does occur in poetry) is not easy to utter, and kīnā is harder still. We therefore get kīyā for the past, and karna for the infinitive, the y being introduced simply to facilitate the pronunciation. The cockney patois does precisely the same thing (cf. I-y-aint).

יתניט marnā, "to die," the root originally contained a vowel ŭ (cf. העניט murdan in Persian and mors in Latin), from which we get mu ā and $m\bar{u}$ - $\bar{a}=mu$ -w- \bar{a} . Again שׁבּט honā, "to be," makes $h\bar{u}w\bar{a}$. Here a w is introduced for similar euphonic reasons.

Passive Voice.

The Passive Voice is of very rare occurrence in Hindūstānī; some grammarians even affirm that it does not exist. There

are, however, plenty of words and expressions to make up for it; of. يه جلدى هو مجهسى كهانى تمام yih jaldī ho mujhse kahānī tamām, "May this story soon be finished by me," lit. "This story be from-me soon complete."

When the Passive must be used, ie. when an active verb has to be made passive, the past participle is used with the verb المارة jānā, "to go," as مارا جانا "mārā, "to beat," مارا جانا "mārā, "to be beaten." With this usage we may compare the English "to get beaten," "get" being connected with "go;" of. American "you get," and our own "get out."

FORMATION OF TRANSITIVE FROM INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

To turn a neuter into an active, or an active into a causal, \bar{a} is added to the root: a second causal verb may be formed from this by adding $l\bar{a}$ to the root. These are probably the roots of the verbs $\bar{b}\bar{l}$ $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, "to come," and \bar{b} \bar{b} $\bar{a}n\bar{a}=\bar{b}$ "to bring," introduced to give further motion to the previously neuter or inactive verb.

COMPOUND WORDS.

Hindūstānī is very rich in Compound Words. Nouns of this kind are for the most part borrowed from the Persian, and these are so like English in their arrangement that they can cause no trouble to the learner.

The types most in use are exactly analogous to such English compounds as "tinder-box," "block-head," "rosy-cheeks," etc.

The Compound Verbs are rather more difficult to explain, but they range themselves readily under three heads.

- 1. Those where the *root* alone is used, as expressing mere action, and is subsequently further defined or qualified by another verb expressing the secondary condition of the person of whom the action is predicated.
- 2. Where the present participle, e.g. by kartā, "one doing," is used, expressing the condition of the individual. The idea may be subsequently expanded, and a secondary predication made of his state with regard to time and place.
- 3. Those in which the past participle, as $\lambda \bar{\imath} y \bar{a}$, is used to express a *complete* action, and a further statement is added of the condition of the person with reference to such action.

The first belongs to those verbs which are generally called 1. Intensives, 2. Potentials, 3. Completives, of which the following are examples:

T. پی جانا pī jānā, to drink up (to go through it—get it over).

لا جانا khā jānā, to eat up.

بول البينا bol uthnā, to speak up (speaking—to stand up). كات دّالنا kāṭ ḍālnā, to cut up (cutting—to use violent action).

گر پڙنا gir paṛnā, to fall down (falling—to lie down). کهو دينا kho denā, to squander away (losing—to give).

2. Any verbal root with

تمكنا saknā, to be able.

ليك سكنا لله khā saknā, to be able to eat.

3. Any verbal root with چُکنا chuknā, "to finish."

Note that in these compounds the root is unaltered, and the second member of the compound only is conjugated ., if this is transitive it will take ne in the past, but not otherwise (see Syntax); e.g. اُسنی شیر کو مار دّالا us ne sher-ko mār ḍālā, "he slew the lion," because we say اُسنے دّالا ; but أي كو كها گيا wuh rotī-ko khā gayā, because we say يُو گيا .

To the second class belong—1. Continuatives, and 2. so-called Statistical verbs.

The only real compounds of this kind are those formed with the present participle in its adverbial (i.e. masculine inflected) form, "in," being understood; as

bakte jānā, to go on chattering.

parhte rahnā, to keep on reading.

The so-called statisticals and other continuatives are simply sentences where the present participle occurs, and must be inflected to express number and gender; as

wuh hanstā jātā hai, he—a laughing man—goes on.

wuh gātī ātī hai, she—a singing woman comes on.

To the third class belong-1. Frequentatives, 2. Desidera-

tives; i.e. we have only to remember that the past participle with كرنا karnā and خاهنا chāhnā means to "keep on doing a thing," or to "desire to do it," and that such compounds are considered as intransitive.

The repetition of a root will also imply continuation or frequency; as سوچ کر soch soch kar, "having reflected:" or two different roots may be so used; as بول چال bol chāl, "go on talking together."

THE SYNTAX.

In Accidence we found how each word was capable of certain modifications to express the accidents of person, number, gender, or time.

We now come to Syntax, which, as its name implies, is the putting together of these individual words, or groups of words, to express one complete idea.

The Accidence being known, all that we require further is to learn the usage of the language in this syntactical arrangement.

This depends first upon the natural order in which ideas occur.

Secondly, upon the history, traditions, habits, and disposition of the people using the ideas; *i.e.* on the natural order modified by habits: in other words, *idiom* or *peculiarity*.

THE SENTENCE.

Now, the complete expression of an idea is called a sentence, which in its simplest form is the mention of a person or thing and the telling something about him or it; e.g.

Man is mortal. John went:

but if the verb is transitive; i.e. if, as its name implies, its action goes on to something else, we must have something else for it to go on to; e.g.

John struck James.

All that can possibly be added to this is: (1) something telling us about the state of John or James,—these are adjectives added to the person; (2) the manner of the striking,—these are adverbs added to the verb; (3) the manner in which, or the thing with which, it was done,—these are instruments; or (4) the time or place where and when it was done,—these are locatives.

THE CASES OF NOUNS.

Now, for each of these cases the Hindustani has a "case."

The simplest uninflected form expresses the subject of the history to be narrated.

It may also be called the nominative, or case which names him.

The Oriental and European grammatical systems not being precisely the same, the technical names of the cases borrowed from the latter are not always applicable to the former, and not unfrequently mislead the beginner. Three of these have a peculiar and distinctive use in Hindūstānī, and for them the following nomenclature is suggested as more in accordance with the principles of Urdu grammar:—

| Old nomenclature. | Examples. | Proposed nomenclature. |
|---------------------------|------------------|------------------------|
| Nominative and Accusative | سرد | Subjective. |
| Dative and Accusative | مر <i>د</i> کو . | Objective. |
| Agent | مرد نے . | Agent. |

In the remaining cases, as no additional clearness would be gained by a change of names, the old nomenclature is retained. The cases in and are the great stumbling-block to beginners.

Construction with ine and de ko.

In former grammatical analysis the agent was always translated by the English preposition "by," and the verb regarded as passive. "لَس نَهِ الْبِكُ كُتُا دِيكِاً , 'he saw a dog,' or literally, 'by him a dog was seen'" (Forbes, p. 103). In this view other grammars concur, assuming the verb to be passive and the construction identical with the Sanskrit, e.g.:

Sanskrit Kukkure-na pániyam pitam.

Hindūstānī Kutte ne páni piyá.

English By the dog water was drunk.

However true this may be as an explanation of the origin of the construction, it does not explain its present application. The fact is that the Hindūstānī idiom makes a much nicer distinction of cases, and of the relation between the verb and the noun, than our own language.

In intransitive verbs, and in all tenses of transitive verbs except those denoting a past or complete action, a state or condition is implied as still going on; as "he walks," or "is walking," "he strikes," etc. The person affected by such condition, or in whom it takes place, is properly put in the subjective case.

In certain verbs, too, such as "to give," which are said "to govern two accusatives," it is obvious that one of these so-called "accusatives" is the *subject of the gift*, that is, the thing given, and the other the *object* of it, that is, the recipient of the gift. Here the Hindustānī logically puts the first in the *subjective case* and the second in the *objective case*.

In the case of the past tense of a transitive verb we conceive of an action completed and passed; we wish, therefore, to know the agent concerned in such act. Here the Hindūstānī supplies us with an agent case.

A complete past action, regarded as an impersonal action without intimate reference to a subject or object, is put in the uninflected form of the verb, i.e. the masculine; thus, the uninflected form of the verb, i.e. the masculine; thus, is the agent, in the object, and is the impersonal, and therefore uninflected verb.

But there are many verbs in which the subject of the action

is more or less intimately connected with it in sense, as—
في يرورش پائي "he obtained nourishment," where the action and its subject may be said to form but one idea, being equivalent to "was nourished."

The intimate relationship between the verb and noun is only expressed in Hindustani by making the former agree in gender and number with the latter. Where the intimate relationship does not exist the other construction may be used.

Nouns implying abstract ideas will most frequently stand in this relationship to the verb.

In some cases the line between the subject and the object is less clearly drawn, and we may use either the one case or the other according as we regard the noun as intimately connected with the action of the verb, or otherwise. For example, we may say—

in the first case, regarding the act of "seeing a fox" as one idea; in the second, dwelling mentally upon the act of "seeing" as complete in itself, but particularizing the object on which such action falls. In other words, the construction differs as we regard the noun from a subjective or objective point of view, and the Hindustānī lauguage has a form appropriate to either idea.

In this way $\geq ko$ may be said to render the object definite in the sense of calling attention to its objective nature as distinguished from the subject; but certainly not, as the grammars assert, in the sense of giving to the noun the force of the definite article. Indeed, both constructions are equally admissible with the word ''a, an, one," which makes the noun expressly indefinite, as in the example, and with the demonstrative s or or s, which render it beyond all question definite. In such cases the grammars fall back upon the illogical and feeble explanation, that the use of s is "more elegant" in one case than in another!

By bearing in mind that the so-called nominative or uninflected form of the noun is always subjective, that the case in is only used for the agent, and that the case in always points to a distinctly objective state of the noun, the student will avoid an error of idiom into which experience has shown that most beginners fall.

It only remains to be said that the genitive or dependent particle $\[mu]$ $k\bar{a}$ agrees with the word that follows it in gender, number, and in being inflected or not; as $\[mu]$ $\[mu]$

مرد کا لڙکا mard kā larkā, The man's son.

mard ko larke kā, Of the man's son.

mard kā jorā, The man's wife.

These broad principles can never be departed from, and the

sentence must contain the words with the necessary inflections for marking the cases, the gender, and the number.

The order of ideas in Hindūstānī is as follows: Subject—Object—Verb, or Agent—Subject—Verb: the latter, as it were, locking the whole up into a compact frame.

The rules given in grammars for the concord of words then are, after all, nothing but—1. Reminders that we are to use these modifying inflections, and maintain this order of words; or 2. Attempts to reconcile any apparent deviation from them.

Bearing in mind these principles, and what was said in the Accidence as to the exact meaning of the individual words which combined form the tense of a verb, etc., we can analyse grammatically any sentence in the Hindūstānī language.

PERSIAN.

THE ALPHABET.

The Persian Alphabet is the same as that used for Hindūstānī (see p. 1), except that it has none of the four-dotted letters, ..., ..., and ..., ...

The pronunciation is nearly the same in both languages, except that the long alif is pronounced in Persian like aw in "awe," instead of like ā in "father," as in Hindūstānī.

The Persians also frequently pronounce $\mathcal{L}g\bar{a}f$ with a slight y sound, like the Cockney mode of pronouncing the g in garden, "gyarden." When it occurs between two vowels it is often sounded like y, as \mathcal{L}^{\dagger} , pronounced like $\dot{e}yer$.

In old Persian, and in the language as spoken in India at the present day, the long and and have two sounds, and and a called majhūl, "unknown." The modern native of Iran does not employ the latter sounds.

THE ACCIDENCE.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Like other languages, Persian contains three parts of speech, namely, Nouns, Verbs, and Particles. Nouns. 29

It is useful to bear in mind the meaning of these words.

The Noun is the name of a thing (nomen); the Verb is the action word; and the Particle is a useful word not requiring to be defined by inflection or conjugation, but itself used to define, qualify, or restrict other words.

Old Persian—or rather Zend—had a very elaborate grammatical system. This has disappeared, and we have the relations of words to each other expressed in modern Persian with a simplicity equalled only by our own English.

NOUNS.

Cases of Nouns.

The only case-ending for Nouns which has survived is \(\) for the objective.

The other relations which the case-ending of other languages imply are expressed by the $iz\bar{a}fat$, and by the use of such prepositions as ba, "to," $b\bar{a}$, "with," $b\bar{a}$, "from," bar, "upon," az, "in," etc.

Izāfat implies the relation of one person or thing to another, as genitive and dependent, or substantive and adjective.

Of the application of $iz\bar{a}fat$ and the use of the objective case I shall speak when I come to treat of the Syntax.

The Vocative is formed by prefixing of ai, as ai mard, "O man!" or (poetical) by affixing \(\bar{a} \), as dusta, "O friend!"

The language has no article, but a common noun is restricted

to unity, expressing one (specified or not) of the species and no more, by adding so. When this is the yare majhul (see p. 28) it makes the word indefinite, whether it be a noun or a verb.

Nouns Substantive and Adjective.

All nouns are concrete, that is, substantive.

A noun only exercises the functions of an adjective by being used in a subservient manner as qualifying another word; e.g. مرد خوب mard i khūb, "a good man," not as in English (where good is abstract and meaningless without the substantive being expressed), but "a man (I mean) a good one:" hence we can use a so-called "adjective" as a substantive, as خوبی khūbī, "a good (man)," whereas in English to say "a good," "a dead," is nonsense. There is, in fact, no such thing as an adjective, though one substantive may be used to qualify another.

NUMBER.

The Plural is formed by affixing

and ha for irrational creatures;

as سنگها «mardān, "men," سنگها «sanghā, "stones."

When the word ends in silent s h an euphonic is inserted; as بندگان banda, "a slave," بندگان bandagān, "slaves." If it end in 1-ā, an euphonic ع y is introduced,; as دانا مقام dānā, "wise," مُأْنَايَان dānāyām.

Persian borrowing so much from Arabic has adopted many plurals from that language. s at the end of a word, representing the Arabic \ddot{s} , often becomes $\ddot{a}t$ in the plural, according to the Arabic usage.

In "irrational" words derived from the Arabic Persians very frequently use the Arabic plural, but they insert a j for euphony in the case of the feminine plural in المن قلع kalu, "a fortress," pl. قلع kilā',¹ or لله kalujāt, "fortresses." They even erroneously transfer this construction to purely Persian words; as نوشته navishta, "a writing," نوشته irrational being or thing.

When the Arabic feminine in $s = \ddot{s}$ is affixed to a noun implying a rational object, as máshūķ, "beloved," washūķah, "a mistress," it becomes āt, and not jūt.

In colloquial Persian ba $b\bar{a}$ is used as the plural for nearly all words, rational and irrational alike.

DUAL.

In some words the Arabic dual form is borrowed; as طرف tarf, "a side," طرفين tarfain, "the two sides" or "parties:" this always ends in يَنَ ain.

GENDER.

From a grammatical point of view the Persian language has

¹ The irregular or "broken" Arabic plurals are treated of in the Arabic section of this work.

Sometimes different words are employed, as in English, to distinguish the sexes; as غون ghūch, "a ram," ميش mīsh, "a ewe" (but in literary Persian ميش signifies "a ram"); اسب السب ههه, "a horse," ماديان "mādiyān, "a mare;" ماديان khurūs, "a cock," ماديان mākiyān, "a hen."

PRONOUNS.

The Personal Pronouns are:

The only thing to notice in one man and \bar{z} to is that in the objective case they become one one of \bar{z} (for $man+r\bar{a}$), tura (for $t\bar{u}+r\bar{a}$), the nasal on and the long vowel both becoming absorbed.

In u, and their plurals, we notice the same

principle as in Hindustani, namely, that i or y expresses near relation, and u or w expresses remote relation.

آن in, "this," and آن ān, "that," make ايس تعامله المراقبة المشان عدم المراقبة المر

Note.—ب"to" or "by" takes an euphonic d before these pronouns; as بدان $bad\bar{\imath}n = ba + \bar{\imath}n$, "to this," بدان $bad\bar{\imath}n = ba + \bar{\imath}n$, "to that."

The plural forms are not required for nouns which merely qualify a plural noun, since the plural termination of the noun itself sufficiently explains it; as مردان خوب mardān i khūb, "good men."

AFFIXED PRONOUNS.

The pronouns sometimes take an affixed form, as follows:

A is seems to have once belonged to the pronouns, as we may see from the plurals leads lead ashan, whima, etc.

These affixes are only used of rational beings, and have the fisual plural termination in 0 $\bar{a}n$, though the final nasal n is dispensed in the first person; thus,

له mā, "us or our." نان itān, "you or yours." دان shān, "them or theirs."

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

These are formed by adding the personal pronouns خود khud, "self," etc.; as

man khud, I myself.

tū khud, Thou thyself, etc.

The affixed forms may also be used with خود khud; as

dar khāna-i-khudam, In my own house.

From خویش khudash, "his-self," we get خویش kh'esh ("his own self, his-self") and خویشتن kh'eshtan, "himself." In the last the word تری signifies "body" or "person."

EXAMPLES OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The following examples are useful as showing the various uses and combinations of the pronouns:

man ki fulan pisr i fulanam, I, so-and-so, the son of so-and-so.

سرم رفت man ki pisaram raft, I whose son went. tu ki pisarat raft, Thou whose son went. \bar{u} ki pisarush raft, He whose son went.

With $\leq ki$ may be compared the *qui* of European languages. It serves for all relatives, but may be defined by other words, as in the above examples.

COMPARISON.

The comparative is formed by adding تر tar, and the superlative by adding تربن tarīn. A single example will impress this on the reader's mind:

يه bih, good, بهترين bih-ter, better, بهترين bih-tarīn, best.

Sometimes the Arabic comparative form انعل afal is used in Persian. Of this I shall speak further on, when treating of Arabic grammar.

NUMERALS.

The numerical figures are the same as in Hindūstānī (see p. 9). The numerals in Persian are:

| 1 | يكف | yak | 11 | yazdah يازده | | | |
|------------------|------|--------------|----|-------------------|------------|---------------|--|
| 2 | دو | $d\bar{u}$ | 12 | dawāzdah دوازده | | | |
| 3 | طسة | sih | 13 | 8īzdah سيزدة | 3 0 | 8₹ سى | |
| 4 | چهار | $chahar{a}r$ | 14 | ohahārdah چہاردہ | 40 | chihil چہل | |
| 5 | پنج | panj | 15 | pānzdah پانزده | 50 | اجن panjāh | |
| 6 | شش | shash | 16 | nhānzdah شانزده | 60 | shaşt شصت | |
| 7 | هفت | haft | 17 | haftdah هفنده | 70 | haftād هفتاد | |
| | هشت | | 18 | الاهشتدة hashtdah | 80 | hashtād هشتاد | |
| 9 | نُه | nuh | 19 | navāzdah نوازده | 90 | nuvad نۇد | |
| 10 | 83 | dah | 20 | bīst بيست | 100 | şad صد | |
| ailo هزار hazār. | | | | | | | |

They are quite regularly compounded, as follows:

و يک bīst ū yak (20 and 1) 21.

يک هزار و هشت صد و هشتاد و يک yak hasār \bar{u} hasht ṣad \bar{u} hashtād \bar{u} yak, One thousand eight hundred and eighty and one, 1881.

The ordinals are made by affixing oum; as

For "first" the word "mukhustīn, or the Arabic "awwal, may be used.

The numerals take the noun in the singular; as دو مرد dū mard, "two men."

We say in English "two head of cattle," and so on. The Persians have several such qualifying words for various objects when used with numerals. The principal are the following:

Persons, نفر موست nafar, individuals, نفر panj nafar dūst, 5 friends.

Horses, cattle, اس اسپ dū rās, head, وراس اسپ dū rās asp, etc. 2 horses.

Camels, منه قطار شتر به string, هم قطار شتر string, همار mahār, string, shutur, 3 camels.

Elephant, چہار زامجیر فیل sanjīr, chain, زمجیر فیل ohahār sanjīr fīl, 4 elephants.

In colloquial Persian the word \ddot{t} is used as a determinative for most objects; as \Rightarrow chahār tā kitāb, 4 books. (The word "piecee," as "one piecee man," in Chinese Pigeon English, is a relic of the same use of qualificative or determining words).

THE VERB.

The Persian Verb also consists of a root in combination with various participial affixes and the auxiliary verb "To be," of which the simplest form is the affixed substantive verb (see p. 14).

$$am$$
, (I) am, im , (we) are. im , (thou) art, im , (ye) are. im ad , (they) are.

TENSES OF THE VERB.

The root expresses mere action, as m_1 ras, "arriving," hence ras+am, "I arriving," $ras+\bar{\imath}$, "thou arriving," ras+ad, "he arriving," etc., is the simplest tense, or aorist, which must be further defined by context or by particles. The prefix m_1 (or the older form m_2 hamī) does so define it, and gives it a present meaning; as m_1 rasam, "I am arriving," etc.

¹ When this is used separately it takes the more regular form آست ast, "is," as in Greek or Latin.

The Root, as the shortest form of the verb, is also used as an imperative, as , "arrive." The prohibitive is made by prefixing of ma, as of ma-ras, "do not arrive," of Hindūstānī mat (p. 15),

Then comes an affix expressing past action, which is, as in English, generally a d or t sound, as "made," "past."

In Persian this is, in most cases, preceded by a vowel, as $ras+\bar{\imath}+d$, "arrived."

shin+ū+d, "heard."

ist+a+d, "stood."

رسيدمى rasīdamī, "did I ar- رسيديمى, rasīdīmī, "did we ar-rive," or "were I to arrive," rive."

رسيدي – رسيدي rasīdī, رسيديدي rasīdī, "did ye ar-"didst thou arrive," rive."

رسیدی rasīdī, "did he ar- رسیدندی, rasīdandī, "did they rive,"

By adding a short a s to the past form the same idea is expressed with a sense of incompleteness. Thus, in English one says, "I am going—eh—to," etc., the hesitating "eh" suggesting something to come. This form, e.g. رسيده, rasīda, signifies "having arrived," and is used with those tenses which are formed from auxiliary verbs, without which the sense would be incomplete; as

رسیده ام رسیده ام rasīda+am, I have arrived.

rasīda+ī, Thou hast arrived.

rasīda+ast, He has arrived,

THE AUXILIARY VERB "To BE."

and so on.

We must now speak more fully of the Auxiliary Verb "to be," (ω) $b\bar{u}$ (dan), "BE (ing)," both being derived from the Sanscrit *Bhuv*. Declining this as far as we can with the affixes given above, etc., we get

Present بَوَمُ būwam, I may be. ه بوى būwī, thou mayest be, etc. ه مُوك buwad, he may be. Past بُوك būd, he was, etc. ه كُول būda, having been.

Again, by combination with the tenses of another verb, مسيدة بودم rasīda būdam, one come I was, etc. رسيدة بودمي rasīda būdamī, were I one come.

بودن būdan makes its imperative باش būsh. This I shall explain when speaking further on of the "irregular" forms of the verb: for the present we must assume all the forms to be regular.

Then by the rules given above we get باشم bāsham, "I may be," and سيدة باشم rasīda bāsham, "I may have been."

With the verb خواستن kh'āstan,¹ "to shall," as an auxiliary, the same combination may be made as in English to express the future; ه.g. خواهم رسيد kh'āham rasīd, I shall arrive.

There is another auxiliary, شُدُن shudan, root شُدُن shav, "to become." This often has the sense of "to go," and is employed to form the passive of an active verb, being analogous in this respect to the Hindūstānī جانا jānā and the English "get" (see p. 18).

rasīdan may be inflected throughout like رسيدن rasīdan or any other verb, and the tenses thus obtained may be combined with those of another verb to make the various tenses of the passive.

If, then, we know the *root* and the *past* form or *stem* of any verb we can, with the assistance of the auxiliary verbs, form any tense we may desire: in other words, conjugate it throughout; *e.g.*

¹ Note that) between $\dot{\tau}$ kh and | \bar{a} is not pronounced.

رسی rasī, thou arriving. rasad, he arriving, etc. سی ست rasam, I am arriving. rasīd, "arrived."

رسيدم rasīdam, I arrived.

سيدم mī rasīdam, I was arriving.

رسيدة rasīda, having arrived.

rasīda am, I have arrived.

rasīda būdam, I had arrived. رسيده بودم , rasīdan, ''to arrive.''

رسيدة باشم rasīda bāsham, I may have arrived, etc. ميد kh'āham rasīd, I shall arrive.

And in the case of an active verb, as کردن kardan, "to do," we may further combine it with شدن shudan; as

karda shudan, to be done. کرده شدن

karda shavam, I am done.

هي شوم کرده مي شوم karda mī shavam, I am being done.

karda shudam, I was done.

karda shuda būdam, I had been done. کرده شده بودم

karda kh'āham shad, I shall be done. کرده خواهم شد

' and so on.

other parts of the verb are الده " an affixed to root = "doing," as صان rasān, "arriving;" الده anda affixed to root expressing the agent, as رسنده rasanda, "an arriver." With the latter compare the Italian affix -ante, having the same meaning.

By prefixing — ba, "to" (see p. 29), we get برسد ba rasad, "he is to arrive," i.e. "let him arrive," and so on for the other persons of the imperative. This prefix is also used for the "arrist" or indefinite tenses.

Causal verbs are made by inserting الله أن ān between the root and the infinitive termination, as رسيدن rasādan, "to arrive," رسانيدن rasānādan, "to cause to arrive."

PHONETIC LAWS IN PERSIAN.

As in all other languages, certain words in Persian do not appear to follow the ordinary rules of accidence, and are therefore called irregular. It will be always found in such cases that the apparent anomaly is due to some euphonic change (see p. 17), arising either from a desire to avoid an awkward combination of consonants, or to facilitate pronunciation; or else from the survival in some forms of older radical letters which have for similar reasons disappeared in others.

In Persian both these causes act together, and many consonants are found in the root verbs which differ from those of the stem. To account for these we need only notice a few philological facts relative to euphonic changes which exist in Persian. An acquaintance with these will not only enable the

¹ Professor Charles Rieu, of the British Museum, has given an admirable exposition of these laws in a pamphlet published by the Philological Society, entitled "Remarks on some Phonetic Laws in Persian," to which I am much indebted for this part of my subject.

student to inflect so-called "irregular verbs," but to recognise many common European words in their Persian form. They may be briefly stated as follows:—The Old Persian $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$ (pronounced like th in "there") frequently becomes in Modern Persian $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$ f: cf. the Russian Feodore for Theodore. $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$ k and $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$ p before t become $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$ k and $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$ f.

The two sounds of k, namely, k and ch (as in "kirk" and "church"), account for many irregularities, thus:—k passes to ch, thence to s. k and g, d and t, p and b, are common and more obvious changes.

p is especially liable to be changed into f when followed by r, as Sanscrit pra, Latin pro, Persian فر far; as Sanscrit prashita, "sent," Persian فرشته firishta, "an angel."

Sanscrit bh, which becomes f in Latin and ϕ in Greek, becomes simple b in Persian; as Sanscrit bhru, "a brow," Greek $\delta\phi\rho\dot{\nu}s$, Persian أبرو $abr\bar{u}$. Sanscrit $bh\bar{u}$, "to be," Latin fuit, Persian $\dot{\nu}\dot{\nu}\dot{\nu}\dot{\nu}$ $b\bar{u}$ -dan.

Sometimes the old Aryan root had an aspirated d (dh); this becomes either d without the aspirate, or h without the d; of. $d\bar{a}dan$, "to give," $d\bar{a}d$, "he gave," dih, "give."

The old d also changes to s before t or d of the past; as بند band, "bind," past بست bast for bandt (the nasal being lost).

Cf. Latin comedo, comestum.

The old Aryan d or dh is sometimes softened away to y, as $p\bar{a}y$ (Senscrit pada), "a foot," but the s into which it

changes remains, as شوى shūy (Sanscrit çudh), "wash," past shust = shudht.

r and l interchange indiscriminately. Another change which is exactly paralleled in European languages exists in Persian, namely, w or v into gu, or simply g, as Arabic Wādy el kebīr, Spanish Guadalquiver; Latin vulpilla, French goupil. So in Persian we have from the Sanscrit vrka, "a wolf," Zend vereka, the Modern Persian gurg. Vistaspa (Darius Hystaspes), Modern Persian Gushtasp. Sanscrit vrt, "to turn" or "become," Latin vert, German werden, Persian gard.

v also occasionally hardens into p when preceded in Sanscrit by ς , as Latin equus, Sanscrit açva, Persian معلى العبار "asp, "a horse."

The changes of the sibilant are somewhat extraordinary at first sight: thus c, in the instance above given, is equal to q. Sometimes this becomes k, sometimes c, and sometimes simply k (cf. p. 14); e.g.

Sanscrit. Hindustani. Greek. Porsian.
$$daça$$
 (10) das $\delta \acute{\epsilon} \kappa a$ deh . $sapta$ (7) $s\bar{a}t$ $\epsilon \pi \tau a$ $haft$.

As the Sanscrit s becomes h in Persian, so, vice versa, h often becomes z: Sanscrit sahasra (1000), Persian in hazar for hazar. Cf. Sanscrit hima, "snow," Persian zemistan, "winter," Latin hiems, Slavonic zima. j also becomes z; as

IRREGULAR VERBS.

In studying the so-called Irregular Verbs, we have only to keep the above principles in view, remembering chiefly that

1.
$$\begin{pmatrix} \cdot & b \\ \cdot & p \end{pmatrix}$$
 become $\downarrow f$.

2. s becomes s h.

3.
$$\frac{sh}{\dot{c}^{kh}}$$
 become $j \approx \text{or } \omega s$.

was keren, and for the same reasons as those already stated in the case of the Hindustānī verb کرنا (see p. 7) the form کر kar became used for the past and کر kun for the present forms.

In و ūdan the و ū becomes \ ā in the stem ; as من قطره bakhshūdan (بخشیدن), to bestow, نخشودن bakhshā.

آزمودن قَتَسَعَdan, to try, آزمودن قَتَسَعَ... kushūdan, to open, لشا kushā.

i numādan, to show, نما numādan.

ربودن ، rubūdan, to rob, ربودن ، rubādan, to rob,

Where the g is a root letter it is retained, but as a consonant v; e.g.

When the infinitive ends in يدني *īdan* and the *ī* is part of the root the stem is strengthened by adding a nasal ن; as

ختن khtan becomes j z (see 3, p. 45), especially after a long vowel:

afrākhtan, to exalt, افراختن afrākhtan. أموز āmūkhtan, to learn, آموز āmūkhtan.

and sometimes it changes into س s or شه h (see 3, p. 45):

shanākhtan, to know, شناختن shanās.

firūkhtan, to sell, فروختن firūkhtan.

فتن ftan in some instances becomes ϕ b or ϕ (see 1, p. 45):

تافتن تقftan, to burn, تافتن تافتن تأموب تهمه تأشوب تمهله تأشوب raftan, to go, رُوَّ تُوْبِ

استن astan, ستن astan (astan), and یستن astan become a, a, and a respectively:

آراستن arāstan, to adorn, آرا ārā. آراستن zīstan, to live, زيستن zīstan (jūstān), to seek, جستن justan (jūstān), to seek, جستن

sometimes ستى stan become ي n or يي īn; as شكتى shikastan, to break, شكتى shikan. nishastan, to sit, نشستى nishān.

Other anomalous changes are شتن ishtan into يس ءَة; as navishtan, to write, نوشتن navīs.

اشتن āshtan into او ār; as اشتن dāshtan, to have, مار dāshtan, to think داشتن ankāshtan, to think انكار ankār.

There are a few others which practice and the vocabularies will teach, but the phonetic rules given on p. 45 will be found to cover most of the cases met with.

In some instances the infinitive and the stem belong to different verbs, just as in English "go" and "went" come from different radical forms:

FORMS OF NOUNS.

These are very numerous and various, but although most may be left to practice and the vocabulary, some may be reduced to rule.

Nouns are either primitive, such as "man," or derivative, such as "manly." The last are formed by adding certain terminations to the first, and as these terminations are generally in their turn derived from verbs, and have a signification of their own, a knowledge of them will greatly assist the learner. The principal are:

2. أورى awar, أورى ar, all from root أورى awardan, and signifying "bringing," "producing," "displaying" (of. English -er, -or), etc.

بالور dil-āvar, brave (hearty). ولاور sor-āvar, strong. سخن ور اور sukhan-var, eloquent.

3. بار bār, "bearing," "abounding in." مار الم shakar-bār, sugar-laden. شكربار sangi-bār, Zanzibār (full of negroes).

4. وان vān, "keeping," "managing;" as مناس bān, شتربان shutur-bān, a camel-man. فتربان bāgh-bān, a gardener. باسبان pās-bān, a watchman.

فام fām "colour;" as میاه فام siyāh-fām, blackish.

5. تار dār, تار tār, "having," from دار dāshtan : فريفتار furīf-tār, a deceiver.

خرید دار خلام خرید دار خلام خرید دار خلام خرید از kharīd-dār, a purchaser. خواست دار $kh'\bar{a}st-t\bar{a}r=kh'\bar{a}st-t\bar{a}r$ خواست دار $kh'\bar{a}st-d\bar{a}r$, a petitioner.

ريدار = dīdār ديد دار dīd-dār, the visual faculty.

6. دان dān, "place" or "vessel for;" as مان namak-dān, a salt-cellar. نمكدان kalam-dān, a pen-case.

- 7. زار په sār, "place abounding in:" کلزار gulsār, a rose-garden.
- سار also signifies "like;" of. خاکسار *khāk-sār*, like dust (vile).
- 9. ستان stān, "place;" as وستان gulistān, a rose-garden.
 للستان Hindūstān, the land of Hindūs (Hindūstān).
- 10. مِش express the abstract idea of the root; as nikūhish, goodness.

 ما dānish, wisdom.

 مانش arāish, adornment.
- 11. مردک ak expresses the diminutive of rational objects; as
 سردک mardak, a little man.

A contemptuous form of diminutive is $\leq ka$; as mardaka, a wretched little man.

For irrational objects the $\overset{\smile}{\smile} k$ is changed into \Rightarrow , just as in $\overset{\smile}{\smile} ki$ and $\overset{\smile}{\smile} chi$ (see p. 34), e.g.

بازیچه bāzīche, a little game. مُغِنُ kaf-che, a ladle (lit. a little palm of the hand). 12. گار $k\bar{a}r$, گار $g\bar{a}r$, all express action or the actor, and are connected with the verb زکردن as

jafā-kār, cruelty.

لستگار dast-gār, skill (دستگار dast, a hand).

jūdū-gar, a conjurer, juggler.

آفریدگار afrīdugār, a creator.

امروزگا, amūs-gār, a teacher.

المال kām-gār, successful.

gunāh-gār, a sinner, guilty.

توانگر tawān-gar, rich (powerful).

13. گین $g\bar{\imath}n$, "affected with;" as

gham-gīn, grieved.

khashm-gīn, angry.

14. خُا الْقَلَامُ ، "place."

ننگ لاخ sang-lākh, a strong place.

15. مند mand, "possessor of;" as

sūd-mand, profitable.

مند danish-mand, wise.

16. ناك nāk expresses "quality;" as

ه النات haul-nāk, frightful.

بهيزناك parhīz-nāk, abstinent.

17. A final __ 7 signifies "relation," such as that implied in the English adjective; as

hindī, Indian.

inglist, English. اىگلىزى

After s this becomes گي; as

ننده banda, a slave.

بندگی bandagī, slavery.

خانگی khānagī, domestic (for خانگی).

The final $oldsymbol{\omega}$ $\overline{\imath}$, when it represents the yás majhūl(s), see p. 28, signifies "unity;" as

mardī, one a man.

18. is signifies "duty," "fitness;" e.g.

کرنے kardanī, what is to be done (duty).

خوردني خhurdanī, good to eat (food).

خریدنی kharīdanī, purchaseable.

COMPOUND WORDS.

Persian is very rich in compound words, and as has been before remarked (p. 18), the types most in use for Nouns are exactly analogous to such English compounds as "block-head," "tinder-box," "rosy-cheeks," and the like; e.g.

لأرخ lāla·rukh, tulip-cheeked. لا رخ gul-andām, rose-bodied. على اندام saman-bar, jasmine-bosomed.

Others are made from two verbal roots; as آمد و رفت āmad o raft, "coming and going;" or two nouns joined by a preposition, as سر بسر sar ba sar, "individually," "altogether," lit. "head to head."

The Compound Verbs are very numerous, but are for the most part quite simple, the principal ones being the following:

1. A noun followed by either کردی kardan "to do," ساختی sākhtan, "to make," نمودن numūdan, "to display," فرمودن farmūdan, "to order," and the like; as

intizār kardan (sākhtan), to expect. انتظار کردن (ساختن) saram numādan, to be generous. کرم نمودن nahṣat farmādan, to start (on a march), said of a king. etc.

2. A noun followed by آمدن āmadan, "to come" (cf. Anglicè "become"):

سیر آمدن str āmadan, to become satisfied.

pur āmadan, to become full.

padīd āmadan, to become apparent.

3. A noun followed by آوردن āwardan, the converse of the last; as

بديد آوردن padīd āwardan, to make apparent.

4. A noun followed by خوردن <u>kh</u>urdan, "to eat," used with words expressing passions or grief; as

غم خوردن gham <u>kh</u>urdan, to be grieved. تاشف خوردن ta-assuf <u>kh</u>urdan, to sorrow.

There are many other compound verbs of this kind, but they will be easily understood when met with, and will be found in most vocabularies. SYNTAX. 53

SYNTAX.

The Syntax of Persian is as simple as that of English, which it much resembles in construction. The student is recommended to read the preliminary remarks on Syntax in the abstract on pp. 21 and 22.

THE CASES OF NOUNS.

As has been noticed above, the only real case-ending which survives in Persian is , rā for the objective. This exactly corresponds to the Hindūstānī ל ko (see p. 23); as הני נו צונה mard-rā kitāb dādam, "I gave the man the book," where mard is the object (its position in the sentence calling attention to this fact); ציי בונה kitāb-rā ba mard dādam, "I gave the book to the man," attention being chiefly called in the last sentence to "book," both by the objective affix and by its position in the sentence: the fact that "the man" is in "dative" is then expressed, as in English, by • ba, "to."

CONCORDANCE.

The Concordance of Verbs and Nouns is exactly the same as in English, a singular noun requiring a singular verb, and a plural noun taking a plural verb.

Nouns substantive do not agree with their adjectives or qualifying nouns in number, it being sufficient to mark the plural by the termination in the first named; as

mardān i khūb, good men (see p. 33).

The relation of "substantive and adjective," as well as that of the "genitive case," is expressed by the izāfat (see p. 29).

izāfat signifies "adding on," and is expressed by placing a short i (kasrah or zer) between the two nouns; as

asp i mard, the man's horse. asp i khūb, a good horse.

The order of words in Persian is Subject—Object—Verb, all qualifying expressions falling into their natural places; e.g. a word expressing the condition of the subject follows it; so does a word expressing the condition of the object; while words or expressions signifying time, place, or other circumstances, find their proper place immediately before the verb.

The only marked peculiarity in the arrangement is that the verb comes generally last.

The description of the "tenses" on pp. 38—42 sufficiently indicates their use.

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ARABIC.

THE ALPHABET.

The Arabic Alphabet is that used, with certain modifications, for Persian and Hindūstānī, and is written in the same way from left to right. The letters and Arabic pronunciation are as follows:

| NAME. | EQUIVALENT. | PRONUNCIATION. | |
|----------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| \ Alif, | a, e, i, o, or u | This is the spiritus lenis of the Greek, a | |
| | | mere prop to rest an initial vowel on. | |
| ب Bā, | ъ | As in English. | |
| ت Tā, | t | A soft dental t like the Italian. | |
| ث Tha, | th | As in thing. | |
| $ \in J^{\bar{\imath}m}, $ | \boldsymbol{j} | As in English. | |
| τ^{Ha} | ķ | An aspirate strongly breathed out from the chest. | |
| $\dot{\subset}^{Kha}$, | <u>kh</u> | Like ch in Welsh or Gaelic, or the German ch as pronounced in Switzerland. | |
| ى Dāl, | d | A soft dental d as in Italian. | |
| خ Dhāl, | dh | Like th in this. | |
| , Rā, | r | A distinctly pronounced r. | |
| ز Zain, | x | As z in English. | |
| w Sīn, | .) | As in English | |
| ش Shīn, sh | | As in English. | |

| NA | ME. | EQUIVALENT. | PRONUNCIATION. |
|------------|-----------------|-----------------|---|
| ص | Ṣād, | ş | An s pronounced by placing the tongue against the side teeth, and slightly opening the mouth. |
| ض | Dhād, | dh | A dh pronounced in the same manner as the last. |
| ط | Ţā, | ţ | A t pronounced with the tongue full against the front part of the palate. |
| ظ | Dhā, | dh | A dh or z pronounced in the same manner as the last. |
| ع | Ain, | å, etc. | A guttural sound only heard in Arabic: it must be learnt from a native. |
| غ : | Ghain, | [*] gh | A guttural sound something like the French r grasseyé. |
| . ف | Fā, | f | As in English. |
| ٔ ق | Ķāf, | ķ | A very guttural k, like ck in thick, only much stronger. |
| ک | $K 	ilde{a} f,$ | k ` | |
| J. | Lām, | l | As in English. |
| ٠ م | Mīm, | m | |
| <u>ن</u> | $N\bar{u}n$, | n | As in English; before b or f it is sounded as m . |
| , | Wāw, | w | |
| 8 . | Ηā, | h | As in English. |
| ی | Yā, | y . |) |

 \ddot{s} is sometimes written thus, \ddot{s} , with two dots over it, and is then called $h\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$. When followed by a vowel this is pronounced like \ddot{c} t, but otherwise it is not pronounced at all.

vowels. 57

The above are joined to the preceding letter by prefixing a small curve or stroke, and to the following letter by removing the curve with which they all but *alif* end: thus

| DETACHED. | INITIAL. | MEDIAL. | FINAL. |
|-----------------------|----------|---------|----------|
| $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ | و | ` • | <u>_</u> |
| ی ن | ٠ | • | ى ن |
| τ | > | s | 4 |
| ص | ~ | ~ | ص |
| ع | 2 | * | ح |
| ف ق | و | ٩ | ف ق |
| ک | \$ | ک | ک |
| J | 1 | 7 | J |
| م . | ~ | * | ۴ |
| ď | ۵ | € | ፈ |

ن ور ن if deprived of the curve would become unrecognizable; hence they do not join to the left.

The above letters are all consonants.

VOWELS.

The vowels are fet- $hah \leq a$ (pronounced like a in hat), and $\underline{dhammah} \stackrel{g}{=} u$ (as in bull), both written above the letter; and hat h

When the vowels are doubled, thus رُحْقُ, they are pronounced respectively an, un and in. This is called تَرْبِين tenwin, i.e. "giving the n sound."

Combined with (a, y), and (a, y), the vowels become (a, a), (a, y), (a, y),

No word can commence in the Arabic character with a vowel, or if it does the vowel is introduced by alif.

When a syllable begins with a vowel, the mark - hamseh is used to introduce it.

But this hamzeh being written above the line requires a prop: this in the case of a is 1, in the case of u it is g, and in the case of i it is g, only that in the initial form this last is distinguished from the ordinary g by losing its dots: e g. g if g ida, "a heart," site g if g ida, "advantage."

" Tashdīd doubles the letter it is placed over.

Sukūn shows that the letter it is placed over has no vowel.

Two sukūns cannot come together in one word.

Waşlah is only used over an initial alif or over the article is, and shows that these are to be elided.

Maddah is placed over an initial alif, and shows that it should be pronounced long, as [i att, "coming."

If the first letter of a word be a sibilant or liquid the article ال is elided before it and the consonant itself doubled, as فَوَامُ ٱللَّهُ فَعُوامُ ٱللَّهُ فَعُلَامٌ اللَّهُ فَعُلَامٌ ٱللَّهُ فَعُلَامٌ ٱللَّهُ لَا Abdullah" (the servant of Allah).

Note.—Final short vowels or tenwin are not pronounced before a full stop.

ROOT WORDS.

(TRILITERAL ROOTS).

Arabic, like the other so-called Semitic languages, is totally different in construction from European tongues.

Every word in the language is referred to a root, which consists of three radical letters. Roots of two, or four or more radicals do exist, but they need not be noticed, since they are treated in practice as though they were derived forms.

Instead of modifying a root to express a modified idea by prefixing or affixing syllables, the Arabic treats the three radicals as algebraists treat the symbols x, y, z, and expresses ideas by formulæ arrived at by combining these with certain other letters, called by European grammarians "servile," but by the natives so the test of saidah, "pleonastic." The letters so used are contained in the words lower lower land amanun wa tashilun, "safety and ease:" that is, they are lower said and of course any of these may occur as radicals, but after learning the rules I shall presently give the student will not find any difficulty in identifying them.

All words are arranged in the dictionaries under the triliteral root: that is, the original word of three radical letters.

I have said that Arabic ideas are expressed by formulæ analogous to those employed in algebra. Thus (x+y+z) may may mean (1+2+3), or (2+3+4), and so on, and the whole

formula will mean 6 or 9, and so on, according to the values given to the letters x, y, and z. Similarly in Arabic the three-letter combination in the root bears a different meaning according to the letters employed; thus, dh+r+b means "beating," dh+r+b means "killing," and so on. The Arabs use the word f+e+l (fel or fael), "doing," for the typical formula of a root, the individual letters f, and f corresponding to the x, y, and z of algebra.

If we add an alif I to the first radical, and place a kesrah > i after the second, the formula will then become $(x\bar{a}y\bar{z}z) = i$ $j\bar{a}_{z}il$, which means "one doing." Thus the formula for an agent is فاعِل. Then, if for the فاعِل (that is, for x, y and z) we substitute the letters contained in either of the combinations given above, viz. قتل or ضرب, we get

 $(X \bar{a} y i Z)$ $(X \bar{a} y i Z)$, one doing. فاعل $dh \bar{a} r i b$, one beating. $k \bar{a} t i l$, one killing.

A word, then, of the shape $(x\bar{a} \in il)$ will always be the agent form of the radical word, whatever that may be. In looking it out in the dictionary you look for the 1st, 3rd, and 5th letters; that is, for the $\dot{}$, $\dot{}$, or, in other words, for the $\dot{}$, $\dot{}$, and $\dot{}$.

But another difficulty may occur. The letters |a, y|, or |a, y| are called weak consonants, and are considered as homo-

geneous with the short vowels $\tilde{}$, a, i, u,. One of these weak consonants may occur as a radical; e g. $\tilde{}$ e $\tilde{}$ e a e

but, as a matter of fact, the agent of \ddot{b} is not \ddot{b} but, the reason being that the vowel \ddot{b} being indispensable to the form absorbs the weak consonant \ddot{b} and turns it into the weak consonant \ddot{b} , which is homogeneous with itself. So from \ddot{b} , "to make a raid,"

Again, "an instrument for doing anything" is expressed by the formula with mif $\bar{a}l$ (= $m\bar{x}xy\bar{a}z$); thus from $\bar{u}l$ (*w=z+n, "to weigh," we get $m\bar{x}xy\bar{a}z$,

but w is not homogeneous with i: the latter, therefore, changes it into y, which is, and we have $miyz\bar{a}n \ (=m\bar{\imath}z\bar{a}n)$, "a balance."

These changes of weak consonants are called *permutations*, and will be treated of later on, together with other phonetic laws.

The first principle in Arabic grammar, then, is that radical

ideas are expressed by combinations of three consonants, and that modifications of these ideas are expressed by algebraical formulæ constructed from these three consonants in combination with the so-called "pleonastic" letters.

I shall now proceed to show the nature of these formulæ and their relation to each other. The student must bear in mind that the word $f+\varepsilon+l$ represents the symbols x, y and z.

VERBAL FORMULÆ.

The form \hat{i} fazala, signifying "he did," is the past tense of the verb.

To express the other tenses the Arabs have only one form,

which is called the "aorist," or doubtful tense, because it may stand for aorist, present, future, etc., the exact meaning being defined either by the context, by changing the final vowel, or by adding other words. Of the "numbers," "persons," etc., I shall speak later on.

The forms يَغْعُلُ faɛala, يَغْعُلُ yafɛulu, are susceptible of further modifications of the middle vowel; this, however, we must also treat of later on.

The imperative is of the form \(\lambda \text{inf} \lambda \l

Besides the form $black ifa_{\epsilon}il$, meaning "one who does," the student must learn the following: $fa_{\epsilon}l$ or $fi_{\epsilon}l$, "a doing," "an act." (But if the root, instead of implying an act, as "striking," signifies a quality or the like, then the form $fa_{\epsilon}al$ is used, and both these are called nouns of action). $fa_{\epsilon}al$, "a place where, or time at which, a thing is done." We get, therefore, the following formulæ for expressing the principal simple ideas in the language:

لَّهُ عَالَى fatala (Xayaza), "past tense," he did.
لَهُ عَالَى yaftulu (yaXyuzu), "aorist," he does, etc.
لَهُ عَالَى yaftulu (yaXyuzu), "imperative," he does, etc.
لَهُ عَالَى اللهِ اللهُ ا

Arabic grammarians never speak of the "agent," etc., of a verb, but mention the formula; thus

فرب فاعِل
$$dh$$
arib is the فاعِل fa_{i} of ضارِب. قتل h atil h , h

DERIVATIVE VERBS.

There are, of course, many ideas which are not expressed by any of the above formulæ; of these we obtain a very large number by certain modifications of the simple formula \hat{bacala} , "he did." These modifications are thirteen in number, and are called "conjugations." I shall number them according to the old system as used in all European grammars and dictionaries of the Arabic language, but shall arrange them somewhat differently.

These modifications consist of prefixing or inserting certain letters in the formula \hat{b} \hat{b} \hat{a} \hat{c} \hat{c}

If in English we want to give greater emphasis to a word we pronounce it more forcibly. The Arabs do the same, and hence it comes that by doubling the middle syllable of the above form we get an intensified meaning. Thus from we get an intensified meaning. Thus from kasara, "he broke," (formula أَنَعُلُ façala (Xayaza),) we get أَنْعُلُ kassara, "he broke to bits," (formula أَنْعُلُ façala (Xayyaz).) But if the verb is not active, this doubling of the middle radical makes it so; as

يَّكُمُ kadama, to be in front. يُدُم kaddama, to send forward. So from a noun, as جلّه jild (formula Xiyz), we get جلّه jallada, "he skinned."

Prefixing \ a also makes a verb active that was not so before; as نزل nazala, "he descended," آنزَل anzala, "he caused to descend," formula انْعَل af_Eala (axyaza).

By putting \ ā after the first radical, formula فَاعَلُ fa ِala (xāyaza), the sense of reciprocity is given; as قَتَلُ katala, "he killed," كَتَبُ kātala, "he fought;" كَتَبُ kātaba, "he wrote," لَتَبُ kātaba, "he corresponded."

The word to "come" in Arabic is تا علم التي ata. Two formulæ are obtained by prefixing the consonant t (the only strong letter in this word ata, with the sense of "becoming") to the two forms last-mentioned; thus from قَدَّمُ kaddama (form. وَهُوَ لَمُ لِمُورِهُمُ لِمُ لَمُ لَمُ لِمُ لَمُ لِمُ لَمُ لَمُ لَمُ لَمُ اللهُ اللهُ

The state or condition resulting from the action may also be expressed by two other formulæ, namely, أَفْتَعَلُ iftaeala (ixyaza) and الْفَتَعَلُ infaeala (inxyaza), the only difference between them being that the first implies "being affected by," and the last "reduced to the state of;" as قطع katae, "he cut," أَنْقَطُ inkataea, "it was cut;" خَمْتُ jamaea, "he gathered," اجتمع jamaea, "it was in a collected state."

By prefixing من ist we get the idea of "asking for," "wishing to be," or "deeming;" as غَدْ وَالْمُعْمَّرِمِ "he asked pardon," أَنْتَعْظُمُ نَا نَاهُ نَعْمَلُمُ نَا نَاهُ فَعْمَلُمُ نَاهُ الْمُعْمَّلُمُ نَاهُ نَامُعُمْلُمُ "he asked pardon," form. لَكُنُّ وَالْمُعْمَّلُمُ لَا نَامُعُمْلُمُ لَا نَامُعُمْلُمُ نَامُ فَعْمُ مَا لَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا لَالْمُعْمَلُمُ لَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا لَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا لَا مُعْمَلُمُ مُعْمَلُمُ مَا مُعْمَلُمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمَلُمُ مَا مُعْمِلُمُ مَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا مُعْمَلُمُ مَا مُعْمَلُمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمَلِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُومُ مُعْمِمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعْمِعُمُ مُعْمُمُعُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعْمُمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعُمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعُمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعُمُمُ مُعُمُمُ مُعُمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعُمُمُ مُعْمُمُ مُعُمُمُ مُعُمُمُ

Of the forms الْعَالِّ ifealla (ixyāzza), الْعَالِّ ifeaueala (ixyazza), and الْعَالِّ ifealla (ixyazza), the last implies "colour," as اصغر isfarra, "to be yellow;" the other two being distorted forms imply some distortion or deformity.

The "nouns of action" are formed from all of these derived forms (except the first two and those beginning with i ta) by prefixing i i to the form and inserting i a between the second and third radical, and changing the preceding i to i; thus i if ... i if ... i if ... i if ... i if i in some of the forms, as the i in least i if i if

The remaining form their nouns of action as follows:

نَعْ عَيل fa و ala, noun of action تَغْعِيل taf و îl (taxyīz). أَنْ عَلَى fā و ala, ,, مَغَاعَلَة mafā و alah(t) maxā yazah(t) or مَغَاعَلُة fie al (xiyāz),

and from those prefixing t by changing the last a but one into u; as تفقل $tafa_{\xi \xi}ul\ (taxayyuz),$ تفاعل $tafa_{\xi ul}\ (taxayyuz).$

The imperative is made by cutting off the last vowel of the aorist and prefixing *i* where two consonants would otherwise come together at the beginning.

The passive of all verbs is formed by changing the first vowel into u and the second vowel into i for the "past tense," and a for the "aorist;" as

PASSIVE.

Where the first vowel of the agrist is already u it is retained in the passive.

FORMS OF THE SIMPLE VERB.

I have said that the simple verb نعل يفعل façala yafçulu is susceptible of further modifications by changing the middle vowel. The following Table shows these, and also the different forms of nouns immediately derived from the verb:

TABLE OF DERIVED FORMS.

| Noun of Action. | ن لموريل) لموريل) لموريل) لموريل) لموريل الموريد | السجمة تفاعل تفاعل |
|-----------------|--|---|
| Imperative. | انع عام فيعل انع ما أفيعل انع تار قاعل | لموعه <i>المقال تفقال</i> الموتة المراقل |
| Aorist. | سانع عرس يُفَعِلُ مانع يمو يُفعِلُ مانع تموس يُفاعِلُ | yatafaqqulu يَتَغَاعَلُ |
| Preterite. | ماع عمر فقال مامع م أخفل مامع تم قاعل | tafę pala تَفَكَّلُ تَفَاعَلُ تَعْامَةً وَمَاعَلُ |
| | First Group. One letter added to the root. 2. Doubled radical, expressing action or intensity 4. Prefixed alif, expressing action 3. Inserted alif, expressing reciprocity or emulation Aor. act. \(\int_{\infty} \cdots \cdots \infty \in | Second Group. prefixed to root, implying consequence. 6. Consequence of 3 Aor. act. \(\int \int \int \int \int \int \int \int |

| Third Group. Two or more letters added, modifying the sense of the root. 7. Exhibiting the effect of the action | (isi) infacala | yanfacilu | infant | القيئة إنفكال |
|---|--|--|-----------------------------------|---|
| of the root 8. Being affected by the action of the root | Jestala jitagala | jaglazilu jaglazilu | الفيعالون إفتعيل | القيائة إفيتمال |
| 10. Asking for or regarding as the original idea expressed by the root. | istafzala istafzala | yastafellu كَسْتَفْعِلُ اللهُ وَاللهُ إِسْتَفْعَلَ | المتعافزة إشيقكال المتعاوة إشتقعل | اقعائنهن إشيفكال |
| رُزَّ عل act. مر آئی غل pass. رئی | | | | |
| Fourth Group. | ist if alla | i is vafeallu | Mest ifealit | اقانجاز افعلاك |
| 11.) fect (| Jest ifeall | ينعال بالمعربية بمعارة | اللقعيرة إفتاليل | اقاعيم إفعيلال |
| 12. Great intensity () (15.2) if eaucal 13. Aor. act. J | اقومىية إفتونكال باقتان بالميان إفتول | yafeaweilu yafeawoilu يفعول | انيسيان إفتخيل آنيسيان إفتخيل | اتەيمانو إنىيجال ئايىمىدىنو إفغۇجال تامىسىمىنو إفغۇال ئامىسەمانو لوغۇل |

TABLE OF FORMS OF
The class to which a verb belongs will be found in the dictionaries.

as مشن hasuna,

| Вімрі | | Ac | tive. | Pas | sive. | Imperative. | Noun of Action. | | Noun of |
|----------|---|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|---------|--------------------------------|------------------|--|---------------------------------------|
| TRILITE | | Prete- rite. | Aorist. | Prete- rite. | Aorist. | Imper | Tran- sitive. | Neuter. | Unity. |
| 1. Class | 1 | | يُفْعُلُ yaf zulu | | | 1 | _ | -, | فَعُلَمَّةً fa _E lah(t) |
| ,, | 2 | " | يُفْعَلُ yaf _e alu | ,, | | إفْعَلَ ifeal | " | " | ,, |
| " | 3 | " | يَفْعِلُ yafeilu يَفْعَلُ | ,, | ,, | إِفْعِلُ if _t il | ,, | فَعَلَّ fa _t al | ,, |
| ,, | 4 | فَعِلَ faعِناa | يَفْعَلُ yaf _E alu | ,, | ,, | إفّعكُ ifeal | ,, | ,, | ,, |
| ,, | 5 | ,, | يَفْعِلُ | ,, | | إفعِل | ,, | ,, | ,, 10 |
| ,, | 6 | فَعُلَ fa _E ula | yafeilu گُوگُو yafeulu | " | ,, | ifeil Úžů ufeal | ,, | قَعَالَةً fa_{ξ} $alah(t)$ $bar{a}$ $bar{a}$ $bar{a}$ $bar{a}$ $bar{a}$ $bar{a}$ | ,, |

HE SIMPLE VERB.

10se of Class 6 are nearly always verbs expressing some quality, to be handsome."

| Noun of Species. | Agent. | Patient. | Noun of Time or l'lace. | Noun of Instru- ment, or Intransitive Agent. | Noun of Quality. | Noun of Superiority (Compara- tive and Su- perlative). | Intensive |
|------------------|--------|----------------------------------|--|---|--|--|--------------------------------|
| | | مَفَعُولَ maf _E ūl | | $\left\{egin{array}{ll} 	ilde{oldsymbol{eta}} & 	ilde{oldsymbol{eta}} & 	ilde{oldsymbol{eta}} \ 	ilde{mif}_{c} 	ilde{oldsymbol{a}} \ 	ilde{oldsymbol{eta}} & 	ilde{oldsymbol{eta}} \ 	ilde{oldsymbol{a}} & 	ilde{oldsymbol{eta}} \ 	ilde{oldsymbol{a}} \ 	ilde{oldsymbol{eta}} \ 	ilde{oldsymbol$ | | أَفْعَلُ af _t alu | |
| ,, | " | ,, | ,, | $\left\{egin{array}{c} \mathring{egin{array}{c} \mathring{egin{array}}{c} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin} \mathring{\egin} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c}} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c}} \mathring{\egin}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c}} \mathring{\egin{array}{c}} \mathring\egin{array}{c}} \mathring\egin{array}{c}} \mathring\egin{array}{c}} \mathring\egin{arra}{c}} \mathring\egin{array}{c}} \mathringarra$ | " | ,, | ,, |
| ,, | ,, | ,, | مَفْعِلَ | ,, | " | ,, | ,, |
| ,, | " | ,, | maf _č il مُفْعَلُ maf _č al | ,, | فَعُـلَانُ faعلق n | >> | " |
| ,, | ,, | ,, | مُفْعِلُ mafeil | ,, | ,, | ,, | ,, |
| ,, | " | " | ين غور المسلمة | " { | لَّاعِلُ fāعِنا نَعَلُ faعِal | } " | لَّعِيلَ fa _t īl |

As soon as the student has mastered these tables each root word that he learns adds a large number of other words to his vocabulary. Thus, for instance, from dh+r+b, "striking," he may make all the words given in the top line of the last table by merely substituting this root for the dh; e.g.

فَعَلَ faṣala, ضَرَبَ dharaba, he struck. Preterite. يْفْعُلْ yaftulu, كِضْرُبُ yadhrubu, he is striking. Aorist. Preterite Pass., غُولُ fueila, مُرْبِ dhuriba, he was struck. Aorist Passive, يُفْعَلُ yufealu, يُضْرَبُ yudhrabu, he is struck. Imperative, أَضْرُبُ $uf_{\epsilon}ul$, أَضْرُبُ أَضْرُبُ أَنْعُولُ الْعُلَالِيَّةِ أَنْعُولُ الْعُلِيلُ الْعُلْدِينَ Noun of action, مُرْبَّ عُلُ faيا, مُرْبَّ dharb, a blow. transitive. Noun of action, neuter. Wanting. Noun of unity, فَرْبَدُ $fa_{e}lah(t)$, فَرْبَدُ $\underline{dharbah}(t)$, one blow. Noun of species. Wanting. فاعِلٌ أَمْ وَمَارِبُ dharib, a striker. Agent, Noun of quality, Same as Agent. Noun of su- مَا اَفْعَلُ afealu, اَضَرَبُ adhrab, more addicted to beating.

Intensive agent, فَرُوبٌ faeul, ضُرُوبٌ dharub, one who beats much.

Again, from the Table of Derivative Forms, p. 68, he can make

2. غَوْمَ اللّهُ عَلَى مَوْمَ عَلَى مُوْمَ اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ عَلَى اللّهُ

مَاعَلَة $mufa_{\xi}alah(t)$, مضاربة $mu\underline{dh}arabah(t)$, contention, and so on. Of course every root is not susceptible of every form, but common sense and the dictionary will tell the student which are used.

We have seen that the formula فَعَلَ faeala (XayaZa) is used for the 3rd person singular masculine of the verb, and is equivalent to "he does;" as ضَرَبَ dharaba, "he strikes," the pronoun "he" being considered as inherent to the form. To express the other persons the following terminations are used:

| | | PRETE | RITE (AFFI | xes). | | |
|-------|-------------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------|-------|---------------|
| PLUR | AL. | DUAL. | , | SINGULAR | ₹. | |
| Fem. | Masc. | Fem. | Masc. | Fem. M | asc. | |
| _ | - | | ت a ـ | _ at | 3 | rd person. |
| - نشق | مين _ | Las tu | | | | \mathbf{nd} |
| tunna | tum | | t | i | ta | |
| اند ا | na | | | i ث_ t AFFIXES | u 1 | st |
| | A | ORIST (SU | FFIXES ANI | AFFIXES |). | |
| PLU | RAL. | ı D | UAL. | SING | ULAR. | |
| Fem. | Masc. | Fem. | Masc. | Fem. | Masc. | |
| ي…'ن | ي…ۇن | تکانِ | سمد. Masc. یسر آنی | تَو | يي | 3rd pers. |
| yana | yaūna | taāni | yaāni | tau | ya u | |
| | | | | | ²ï | 2nd ,, |
| tana | taūna | ta. | ani | taīna | ta 1 | u |
| | $n \dots u$ | | | , <u>†</u> | au | 1st ,, |

Thus, from ضرب "he struck," we get

Preterite شربَت <u>dh</u>arabat, she struck,

<u>dh</u>arabtu, I struck,

and so on; and in the aorist

يضّرُبُ yadhrubu, he strikes, يَضَرُبُ adhrubu, I strike, and so on.

The following exhibits all these forms in the typical root (see p. 60):

| ئوا نَعَلَنَ | فعَلَتَا فعَلَ | ت فَعَلا فَعَلا | m. Masc. فَعَلَ فَعَدَ | 3rd pers. |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|--|---------------------------|-----------|
| façalna faç | (| ı | alat fa _ç ala | |
| لْتُمْ فَعَلْثُنَّ | يُشَمَا فَعَلَا | - | فَعَلْتَ فَعَلَـ | |
| fazaltunna faza | iltum façalı | tuma fazi | alti fazalta | |
| فعكت | | | فَعَلْتُ | 1st ,, |
| fazalna | | 1 | fazaltu | |
| PLURAL. | _ DUAI | i | SINGULAR. | |
| Fem. Maso نُعُلُونَ يَفْعُلَنَ | | Masc. Fer عُلُ يَفْعُلَانِ | m. Masc. يَفْعُلُ تَفَ | 3rd pers. |
| yafeulna yafeuli | _ | | ulu yafzuli | ı |
| فْعُلُونَ تَفْعُلْنَ | ىعُلَان تَ | لِينَ أَ تَهُ | تَفْعُلُ تَفْعُلِ | 2nd ,, |
| tafeulna tafeuli | ina tafeul | āni tafe1 | ulīna taf _t ul | 'u |
| نَفْعُلُ | | | أَفْعُلُ | 1st ,, |
| nafulu | | 1 | af _č ulu | |

It may be taken as an axiom that in Arabic the direct or subjective idea is expressed by u^2 , the objective or conditional

by $a \le$, and the dependent by i >. This is obviously so in the cases of nouns, but it is equally applicable to verbs. Thus, to express the "conditional mood" we have only to change the final vowel of the agrist from u to a; as

yadhruba, that he may strike.

The imperative second person singular is, as we have seen (p. 63), the shortest form in which a word can occur. To make the imperative of the other persons in Arabic we have only to shorten the words as much as possible by cutting off the last vowel; as

yadhrubu, he strikes, يَضْرُبُ yadhrub, let him strike, and so on.

Note that the final ... in the persons of the agrist is considered as a vowel and elided; thus

يَضَرُبُونَ ya<u>dh</u>rabūna, they strike, يَضَرُبُوا ya<u>dh</u>rubu, let them strike.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

Although certain Arabic verbs seem at first sight to be quite irregular, it may be taken as an axiom that no such thing as an irregular verb exists.

 able to account for any apparently irregular form which may be met with, or to conjugate any verb in which weak consonants occur.

PERMUTATIONS IN THE PRETERITE.

CHANGES IN THE TERMINATION OF THE AORIST.

Similarly the nouns and participles, etc.:

¹ When j is final, and more than two letters precede it, it is written structure, but pronounced the same.

NOUNS. 77

Thus, to take an extreme case, \tilde{b} $aw\bar{a}$, "to repair to a house or spot in order to live there," in which all three radicals are "weak," we get \tilde{b} awat, "she repaired," for \tilde{b} awayt (because the feminine is made by adding \tilde{b} t to the masculine, which in this case is \tilde{b} , and two sukūns cannot come together, see p. 58) = \tilde{b} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{b}

Note.—In the case of verbs which begin with a , w and make their aorist of the form و the w drops out in the aorist active; thus, from وقى waka, "to guard against," we get—Preterite وقى waka, Aorist يقى yaki, Imperative for يقى بنة, because the imperative must be pronounced quickly and shortly.

NOUNS.

Besides the nouns which are included in the forms derived from verbs, as given above, there are some called primitive, i.e. which cannot be referred to any verbal root, such as in farasun, "horse," it kalbun, "heart," jaf arun, "small stream." These belong, of course, to the vocabulary.

There are other forms of nouns, of which the following are the most useful:

- 1. Trades and offices are of the measure عَالَةً أَوْ عَالَةً يَجَارُهُ tijāratun, "trading," خِيَاطَةً بُرَامًة لِمَارُةً لِمُارَةً لِمُارَةً لِمُارَةً لِمُارَةً لِمُارَةً لِمُارَاءً لِمُعْلِمًا لِمِعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمًا لِمِعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمًا لِمِعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمًا لِمِعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمًا لِمِعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمُ لِمُعِلِمُ لِمُعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمًا لِمُعْلِمً لِمُعْلِمً لِمُعْلِمً ل
- 2. Pains of the body are of the measure وَعُمَانُ fueِalun; as يَعُدُاعُ sudāeun, "headache," مُعَدُاعُ sue alun, "cough."
- 3. Sounds are of the measure نُعُيلُ fueālun or نَعِيلُ faeīlun; as مُراخً surākhun, "cry," صَفِيرً safīrun, "whistling."
- 4. Motion, commotion, or emotion are expressed by the form فَعَلَاثَ faealān, and sometimes فَعَيلُ faealān; as فَعَلَاثَ khafakānun, "palpitating, fluttering," رَحِيلٌ "departure."
- 5. Flight or avoidance by فِعَالَ firārun; as فِرَارٌ firārun; 'flight."
- 6. A small portion is expressed by فَعُلَةً fizlatun; as كَسْرَةً kisratun, "a broken crust," قِطْعَةٌ kitzatun, "a fragment."
- 7. A small quantity by فَعُلَمُ fuelatun; as مُبْضَمُّة kubdhatun, "a handful."
- 8. Colour in the abstract, by فَعُلَةٌ fuelatun; as مُمْرَقٌ humratun, "redness," مُمْرَقٌ sufratun, "yellowness."
- 9. Small pieces, refuse, by فُعَالَةٌ fuçūlatun; as فُعَرَاضَةٌ kurū-dhatun, "clippings, filings."

CASES OF NOUNS.

The cases of nouns are three—Subjective, Objective, and Dependent. These are represented by the vowels $^{\varrho}u, ^{\varepsilon}a$, and z; respectively.

When the noun is indefinite the tenwin form is used (see p. 57); thus

Subj. اَرَّجُلُ rajulun, a man. آلرَّجُلُ arrajulu, the man.

Obj. اَلرَّجُل arrajula, the man. آلرَّجُل

Dep. رُجُلِ rajulin, of a man. آرَّجُلِ arrajuli, of the man.

The dependent is used with all prepositions.

The following is a noun declined with and without the article, and with the affixed pronouns:

| | DEF | INITE. | |
|------------------------------|-------------------|-----------|-----------|
| INDEFINITE. | With the Article. | With | Pronouns. |
| a book. کِتَابُ Subjective | ألكِتَا | كِتَابُهُ | كتابي |
| Dependent کِتَابِ of a book. | أِلْكِتَابِ | كِتَابِهِ | كِتابِي |
| a book. كِتَابًا | أُلْكِتَابَ | كِتَابَهُ | كِتَاہِي |

The following nouns, عَمْ "father," أَنَّ "brother," مُعَ "father-in-law," دُو "thing," دُو "possessor," شو "mouth," are declined with long vowels when in construction with a noun, or when they have an affixed pronoun; e.g.

| INDEFINITE. | With the Article. | With Pronouns. | In con- struction. |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Subjective $\stackrel{s}{\smile}$ a father. | أَلْأَبُ | أَبِي أَبُوهُ | أُبُو زَيْدٍ |
| Dependent | أَلْأَبِ | أبى أبيه | أَبِي زَيْدٍ |
| Objective أَبًا | أَلْأَبَ | أُبِي أَبَاهُ | أَبَا زَيْدٍ |

Certain nouns cannot take tenwin; these have the fetha (a) for both objective and dependent case.

When, however, they are preceded by the article, or are in

construction with another noun, they have keers (i), like other nouns in the dependent case.

NUMBERS OF NOUNS.

The Dual is formed as follows:

THE PLUBAL.

The plural in Arabic is either "regular," i.e. formed by affixes; or "broken," i.e. a modification of the original form of the singular, just as in English we say "ship," pl. "ships," and "man," pl. "men."

REGULAR MASCULINE PLURAL.

The regular plural is formed as follows:

MASCULINE.

Subj.
$$dina$$
, This is merely a lengthening of the singular Obj. $dina$ termination $dina$, for just as $dina$ $dina$, so $dina$ $dina$ $dina$.

Subj. $dina$ $dina$ Similarly this is an expansion of the regular Obj. $dina$ $dina$ feminine affix \ddot{s} t .

The regular masculine affixed form is only used for-

1. Nouns derived from verbs making their feminine in s and signifying rational beings.

- 2. Proper names of men, provided they consist of a single word, and do not end in 8.
- 3. Diminutives of proper names of the description just mentioned, and diminutives of ordinary nouns, provided they denote rational beings, and are of the masculine gender; as

- 5. Nouns of the measure أَفْعَلُ af alu, provided they signify comparison.

The regular plural cannot be used in nouns which are common to both genders; as

6. The following words.

(and the other cardinal numbers, thirty, forty, etc., between twenty and ninety,) together with all nouns similar to the last, i.e. nouns of which the last radical is cut off and a s added by a hundred," عِضَةً ; مِتُونَ "a hundred," مِاتَّةً . عضون "thorny path,"

The last-mentioned class of plurals in the dependent case may be treated as broken plurals, and declined throughout; e.g.

In construction with a following noun the regular plural loses its final (;); as

N.B.—The termination \ddot{s} , whether singular or plural, becomes \dot{z} t when followed by another letter; as \dot{z} \dot{z} \dot{z} $\dot{k}\underline{h}$ watun, "brothers," \dot{z} \dot{z} $\dot{k}\underline{h}$ watuhu, "his brothers."

The regular feminine plural is used with all feminine nouns ending in \ddot{s} ; $\ddot{\tilde{c}}$ $\tilde{a}tun$ is frequently used in nouns which have a neuter sense; as

BROKEN PLURALS.

There are, besides this regular form, a large number of formulæ for the plural, called "broken plurals," and the use of these is one of the greatest difficulties in Arabic. Practice and the dictionary can alone teach all these, but a study of the following table will account for most of them. The top line shows the form of plural, the left hand column the forms of the noun.

Sometimes a word, if used in different meanings, will take one plural in one sense and one in another; as "نَيْتُ "a house," pl. تَبُوتُ , but الله "a verse of poetry," makes its pl. اَبُيَاتُ. أَبُياتُ.

| E., E., 'E., 'E., 'E., 'E., 'E., 'E., 'E | | |
|--|------------------|---|
| | فعللة | Generally used with words which have a weak consonant at beginning or end; as خاصلت "a brother," pl. خَوْمُ أَوْمُ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهُ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهِ اللّٰهُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمِلْمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ الللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰمُ اللّٰ |
| نام الله الله الله الله الله الله الله ال | نع كله | |
| ر. عن الم | ه عمل | Generally nouns implying concrete ideas, and for nouns of a subjective nature. |
| ر المالية الما | ريع ا | y nouns in ideas, an a subject ture. |
| سک سک سک مسک مسکر مسکر معمد معمد معمد معمد معمد معمد معمد معمد | ر در مع | nplying nd for ive na- |
| ري ري ري ري ري ري نق نق نق نق نق رق | فيكال | From substantives which have no weak consonants, and which make their feminine in \$\delta\$; as \$\display\$ "a camel." |
| | أفعال | Mostly used of nouns of an objective nature. |
| الله الله الله الله الله الله الله الله | أفعل | "Plural of Paucity," i.e. used for any number from 3 to 10. |
| 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6 | مِينَ مِنْ اللهِ | Paucity, from verbs whose 2nd and 3rd radical is the same; as $3 = 53 $. |
| وَيُعْلِقُ فِي اللَّهِ فِي اللَّهُ الللَّهُ فِي اللَّهُ اللَّا لِلللَّهُ فِي اللَّهُ لِلللللَّ الللَّهُ فِي اللَّهُ الللَّهُ ف | فعلان | Generally from nouns with a weak 2nd or 3rd radical; as نيرائ "fire," ناوعد. |

When the termination a implies unity, the removal of it will naturally have the effect of representing the plural; og. عُمُنَاهُ tuḥfatun, "a gift," pl. عُمُنَاهُ tuḥfatun, "a gift," pl. عُمُنَاهُ tuḥfatun, "a gift," pl. عُمُنَاهُ اللهِ اللهُ عَلَى اللهُ عَ

Other forms are:

Sing. شیخ sheikhun, pl. مَفَاعِلُ mafāɛilu; as شیخ sheikhun, "an elder or chief," مشائخ mashā-ikhu, "elders," مشائخ إلى husnun, "beauty," مُسَانِي سَمُهُ maḥāsinu, "beauties."

Sing. فعال , pl. فعُل fueulun; as قَذَال kadhālun, "neck," pl. فعُل kudhulun. قذَال kudhulun.

Sing. فعيل , pl. فعُل fueulun ; as قضيب ka<u>dh</u>ībun, "rod," pl. قضيب ka<u>dh</u>ūbun. فُعُل

Sing. فعول , pl. فعول fuɛulun ; as رسول rasūlun, "apostle," pl. رسول rusulun.

Sing. فعيل fatīl, pl. فَعَلَا futalā-u; as فقير fatīrun, "poor," pl. عُلَمَا futarā-u; عليم إلى futarā-u; عليم إلى عليم futarā-u. When this means "pain," etc., its plural is فَعْلَى fatlā; as جريح jarīḥun, "wounded," جريح jarṭhā.

The masculine agent فاعل fāzil has many forms of the plural, of which the most common are فُعُال fuzalun and فَعُول fuzalun; as تَاجِر tājirun, "a merchant," pl. تاجر shāhidun, شاهد shāhidun, شهود shuhūdun.

From agents ending in — in (for ق or ق , see p. 76) the pl. is فَعَلَةُ fuçalatun; as قَضَاةٌ kadhin, "a judge," pl. فَعَلَةً kudhātun = فَضَاةٌ kudhyatun (see p. 61).

Plural of Words with Four Letters.

In words of five or more letters all above four are cut off in forming the plural; as

THE NOUN OF RELATION.

The noun of relation is formed by affixing the syllable رقی تyun and rejecting all such inflections as the s of the feminine, or the signs of the dual and plural; as مَكِّمَ mekkatun, "Mecca," relative مَكِمَ mekkīyun, "Meccan."

If the nouns themselves end in the termination , this is rejected.

Very irregular forms are شَآم shāmin, "Syrian," يكان yamānin, "of Yemen." (These are declined like شَام ķādhin).

ABSTRACT NOUN.

THE DIMINUTIVE.

If the noun has more than three letters, all which follow the inserted نَّ are pointed with kesrah; as نُورِيَهُمُّ dim. مُرْبِيهُمُّ .

Declinable nouns only can take the diminutive form.

FORMATION OF THE FEMININE FROM THE MASCULINE.

The feminines of masculine nouns are formed as follows:-

1. By adding s; as ضَارِئَةً dhāribun, fem. ضَارِئَةً dhāribatun,

and l'an before s' become l; as فَتَّى fatan, "a youth," fem. فَتَّى fatātun, "a young girl."

2. Nouns of the form فَعُلَانُ faوِلَقَnu make their feminines in سَكْرُانُ faوِلَة ; as سَكْرُانُ sakrānu, "drunk," fem. مَنْكُرُنُ sakrā.

But فَعُلانَ faِ lānun and فَعُلانَ fuِ lānun make their feminines in the usual manner, فَعُلانَتُ and وَعُلانَتُ ; as نَعُلانَتُ nadmānun, "repentant," fem. فَعُلانَتُ nadmānatun; عُرْيَانَ بُعُورِيانَ يُوسِيانَ يَعُرُيانَ يُوسِيانَ يَعُرُيانَ أَنْ يَعَانَدُهُ وَسِيعَ مُرْيَانَ أَنْ fem. عُمْرُيَانَ يُعْرَيانَ يَعُرُيانَ أَنْ يَعَانَ اللّهُ وَسِيعَ مُرْيَانَ أَنْ أَنْ اللّهُ وَسِيعَ اللّهُ وَاللّهُ وَاللّهُ وَسِيعَ اللّهُ وَاللّهُ ولِي اللّهُ وَاللّهُ وَ

- 3. أَفْعَلُ $af_{\epsilon}alu$, when it expresses the comparative or superlative, makes its feminine أَكْبَرُ akbaru, "greatest," fem. گُبْرَى $kubr\bar{a}$.
- 4. أَغْفُلُ afealu, when it is descriptive of colour or deformity, has for its feminine أَحْمَرُ faelā-u; as أَحْمَرُ أَهُ aḥmaru, "red," fem. كَذَبُ أَ aḥdabu, "hump-backed," fem. كَذَبُ أَ aḥdabu, "hump-backed," fem. كَذَبُ أَهُمُ اللّهُ الللّهُ الللّهُ اللّهُ اللللّهُ اللّهُ اللللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ الللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ الللّهُ اللّهُ اللللّهُ اللّهُ الللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ اللّهُ ال
- 5. فَعُولً fazūlun, when it has an active signification, has no different form for the feminine; as رَجُلُ صَبُورٌ rajulun ṣabūrun, "a patient man," إَمْسَرَأَةٌ صَبُورٌ imra-atun ṣabūrun, "a patient woman."

But فَعُولًا faَدِulun, with a passive signification, makes فَعُولًا faَدِulatun in the feminine; as رَسُولُ rasulun, "one sent," fem. رُسُولًا rasulatun.

6. Vice versd فَعِيلٌ façīlun, in the passive sense, has only one orm for the masculine and feminine; as رُجُلٌ قَتِيلٌ rajulun

katīlun, "a murdered man," أَمْ قَتِيلٌ imra-atun katīlun, "a murdered woman," while فَعِيلٌ faɛ̄īlun with an active meaning makes شَفِيعَةُ faɛ̄īlatun in the feminine; as شَفِيعَةُ shafīɛun, "an intercessor," fem. شَفِيعَةٌ shafīɛatun.

Some few words are of the common gender. The list will be found in any of the larger grammars.

The following words, though not ending in \ddot{s} , are feminine: Names and attributes of women; nouns meaning fire, wind, wine; the double parts of the body, as "hand," "foot," etc.; nouns ending in \ddot{s} and cs, and all broken plurals.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

The Demonstrative Pronoun is 13 "that," and is thus declined:

| PLURAL. | Dt | JAL. | SING | ULAR. | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| أُولَى or أُولاً ala-i ala | Fem. تان tāni | Masc. ذَانِ dhāni | Fem. زی dhī | Masc. اث dhā | Subjective. |
| " | تَيْن taini | دَيْنِ dhain i | | , | Dependent and Objective. |

ان dhā is seldom used by itself, and when it forms a compound the singular assumes the form ترى $t\bar{t}$ or ترى dhihi at the end of a word, and $t\bar{t}$ or t at the beginning.

It is usually combined with ها hā, "behold!" (prefixed), or ها لندا lika, "for thee" = "there you are!" (affixed); as هذا hādhā, "this," فالكث "that."

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. The separate pronouns are:

| | | | SINGULAR | L. | DUAL. | 1 | PLURAL. | |
|-------|------|------------------|------------|---------------|----------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| | | Masc. | Common. | Fem. | Common. | Masc. | Common. | Fem. |
| 1st p | ers. | | أنًا ană ا | | | ن | mahn we. | u |
| 2nd | ,, | أننت | 1. | أنبت | أنشما | أُنْتُمْ | | أنثن |
| | | anta thou. | | anti thou, | $antumar{a}$ ye two. | antun ye. | an | tunna ye. |
| 3rd | ,, | هُوَ | | هِيَ | هُمَا | هم | | گنگ hunna |
| | | $h\bar{u}wa$ he. | | hiya she. | humā they two. | hum they. | , | they. |

These only express the nominative case.

2. The affixed pronouns are:

| | | Masc. | SINGULAI Common, | | DUAL. Common. | | RAL. mon. Fem. |
|-------|------|----------|---------------------|------------|------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| 1st p | ers. | | <u>آ</u> ري | | | نَا | nā |
| | | | my, me. | | | our | , us. |
| 2nd | ,, | کُ | • / | کث | گُمَا | گُم | گن |
| | | ka | | ki | $kum\bar{a}$ | kum | kunna |
| | th | y, thee. | tl | y, thee. | your, you two. | your, you. | your, you. |
| 3rd | ,, | 8 | | کھا | هُمَا | گلم | گدن |
| | | hu | | $h\bar{a}$ | humā | hum | hunna |
| | his | him. | | her. | their, them two. | their, them. | their, them. |

These only express the dependent or objective cases.

With verbs, and certain particles which resemble verbs, the of the first person becomes نِي ; as نَوَيَ ''he struck me,'' وَالْمَنِي ''verily I.''

¹ This is pronounced ana, both a's short, but the accent on the first.

خَطَايَاىَ "sins," خَطَايَا عَ ; as إِيَّ becomes فَ عَطَايَا عَ "sins," خَطَايَا عَ "my sins."

The pronouns of the third person, when preceded by kesrah > or من , change their dhammah to kesrah; as كِتَابِهُ ''(of) his book," كُتَابِهُ ''upon them."

If the two pronouns are joined, the natural order of the persons must be followed, the first preceding the second, and the second coming before the third.

where pronouns of the second person plural are followed by another affixed pronoun, a long و is introduced between the two; as أَعْطَيْتُكُمُّوهُ "I gave you," أَعْطَيْتُكُمُّوهُ "you gave," أَعْطَيْتُكُمُّوهُ "you gave it;" أَعْطَيْتُكُمُّوهُ have been the original full form of the termination of these pronouns.)

THE ARTICLE.

The article الله "the" is indeclinable.

THE NUMERALS.

THE CARDINAL NUMBERS.

| | | Masculine. | Feminine. | | |
|----|----------|---|--|---|--|
| 1 | , | اَ حَدَّ أَ aḥadun عُاحِكُ wāhidun | إحّدى iḥdā وَاحِدةٌ wāḥidatun | | |
| 2 | r | إِثْنَانِ ithnāni | إِثْنَتَانِ ithnatāni ثِنْتَان | This is declined as an ordinary dual noun. From 3 to 10 the | |
| 3 | ۳ | ثَلْثَةُ ثَلَاثَةً thalāthatun | thintān t ئىڭ ئىكى thalāthun | numerals assume the feminine form for the masculine, and vice versa. From 3 to 10 the numerals govern a broken | |
| 4 | ٤ | أربعة | أَرْبَعُ | plural of the noun numbered, which is | |
| 5 | 0 | arba Eatun گُسْمُخ <u>kh</u> amsatun گُشْب | arbaeun خمش <u>kh</u> amsun سِكشَ سِكتَ) سِتَ | put in the oblique case. If the noun have a plural of paucity, this is to be preferred, as مَدُنَا اللهُ عَنْهُ عَنْهُ اللهُ عَنْهُ اللهُ عَنْهُ اللهُ عَنْهُ اللهُ عَنْهُ اللهُ عَنْهُ عَنْهُ عَنْهُ عَنْهُ اللهُ عَنْهُ عَالْمُعُلِمُ عَنْهُ ع | |
| 7 | ~ | sittatun شَجْعَة | sittun ڪَبَث | | |
| 8 | ^ | sabęatun تَمْنِيَةٌ ثَمَانِيَةً themaniyatun | sabeun (تُمَانِی) ثُمَانِ thamānin | The numerals compounded with 10 are indeclinable, both | |
| 9 | 9 | تِسْعَة | تست | taking fethah in all cases. The 10 thus used in the compound | |
| 10 | 1. | tis¿atun څَشُرُة وasharatun | tiseun Šme eashrun | follows the ordinary rule for masculine and feminine, while the units reverse it, as stated above. | |

| | | Masculine. | Feminine. | | |
|----|----|---|--|---|--|
| 11 | 11 | أَحَدَ عَشَرَ | إِخْدَى عَشْرَةَ iḥdā ;ashrata | From 11 to 99 the numerals tike an | |
| 12 | ir | aḥada عِهُمَاهُمَا إِنْمَا عَشَرَ | إثنتا عِشْرَةَ | accusative singular of the thing numbered. | |
| 13 | ır | ashara عَشَرَ ثَلَاثَتُ عَشَرَ thalūthata; ashara | ithnatā جashrata تَلَاثَ عَشْرَةَ thelātha جashrata | etc., are common to both genders, and are declined | |
| 19 | 19 | | on to تِسْعَ عَشْرَةَ tisça çashrata | like ordinary sound plurals, see p. 81. In compounding numerals with 20, | |
| 20 | r. | عِشْرُونَ | | 30, etc., and a unit, the unit is placed first, the two are | |
| 21 | rı | ishrūna آُڪَڌُ وَ عِشْرُونَ aḥadun wa ;ishrūna | إخدى وَ عِشْرُونَ | connected by the conjunction j and and both are declined. | |
| 30 | ۳۰ | ئىكاتۇن ئىكاتۇن thelāthūna | etc. | | |
| 40 | k. | أَرْبَعُونَ arbaṣūna | | | |
| 50 | ٥. | خَمْسُونَ khamsūna | The word to both get | nders. | |
| 60 | ٦٠ | ىستۇن سىئۇن sittūna | From 100 to 1000 to the singular of the which they put in th | noun numbered, he oblique case; as | |
| 70 | ٧٠ | سَبْعُونَ | when the hundred with units they are | s are compounded | |
| 80 | ۸٠ | aabعقna ثَمَانُونَ | with units, they are put in the oblique case of the singular. | | |
| 90 | 9. | thamānūna تِسْعُون tiseِūna | | | |

| | | Masculine. | |
|---------|--------|--------------------------|---|
| 100 | 1** | واقة | is pronounced as if |
| | | mi-atun | written atun.] |
| 200 | r | مِائَتَانِ | |
| | | mi-atāni | |
| 300 | ۳۰۰ | ثَلَاثُ مِائَةٍ | |
| | | thelāthu mi-atin | |
| 1000 | 1 | أَلْفُ | a thousand" is |
| | | alfun | common to both genders. |
| 2000 | r | أَلْفَانِ alfāni | Thousands compounded with |
| | | | units follow the rules above given, i.e. they are treated as |
| 10000 | '''' | عَشَرَةُ آلَافٍ | a thing numbered. Thus for 3000 to 10000 the broken |
| | | ęashratu alāfin | plural آلافي is used in the |
| 11000 | 11 | أَحَدَ عَشَرَ أَلْفًا | oblique case; from 10000 to |
| | | aḥada ṭashara alfan otc. | 99000 the accusative singular أَلْقًا is used; and from 100000 |
| 100000 | 1 | مِائَة أَلْفِ | upwards the oblique singular |
| | | mi-atu alfin | . أَلْفِ |
| 200000 | r | مِائْتَا أَلْفِ | |
| | | mi-atā alfin | |
| 300000 | ۳۰۰۰۰۰ | ثَلْثُمائَة أَلْفِ | In these cases the hundred and unit are written as one |
| | | thelathu-mi-ata alfin | word. |
| 1000000 | 1 | أَلْفُ أَلْفِ | |
| | | alfu alfin | |
| 2000000 | r | أَلْفَا أَلْفِ | |
| | | alfā alfin | |
| 3000000 | m | ثُلَاثُةُ آلَافِ أَلْفِ | |
| | | thalāthatu ālāfi alfin | |

ORDINAL NUMBERS.

The ordinal numbers for the units (except the first) are of the form of the agent, masc. فَاعِلَةٌ, fem. فَاعِلَةٌ; the tens, hundreds and thousands do not differ from the cardinal numbers.

| Masculine. | Feminine. | |
|---|--|------------------|
| awwalu أَوَّلُ | ūlā أُولَى | 1st |
| thānin ثَـانِ | thāniyatun ثَانِيَةٌ | 2nd |
| thālithun تَالِّتُ | thālithatun تَالِثَةٌ | 3rd |
| and so on | | |
| حَادِي عَشَرَ | حَادِيةً عَشْرَةً | 11th |
| ḥādī zashara | ḥādiyata _z ashrata | |
| ثَانِي عَشَرَ | ثانِيَةً عَشْرَةً | $12 \mathrm{th}$ |
| thānī عashara | thūniyata _E ashrat a | |
| عِ شَرُونَ عِشْرُونَ | $20\mathrm{th}$ | |
| حادٍ وَ عِشْرُونَ | حَادِيَةٌ وَعِشْرُونَ | 21st |
| ḥādin wa zishrūna | ḥādiyatun wa ¿ishrūna | |
| ثان وَ عِشْرُونَ | ثَانِيَةٌ وَعِشْرُونَ | 22nd |
| | thāniyatun wa ¿ishrūna tc. | |
| ⁹ تِسْمُونَ | 90th | |
| | | |
| ڪادِ وَ تِسْعُونَ معت منه معم منافقة | حَادِيَةٌ وَ تِسْعُونَ ḥādiyatun wa tis;ūna | 91st |
| ḥādin wa tis _ę ūna e | | |
| | ···· | |

PREPOSITIONS.

The prepositions are either inseparable (i.e. are written as one word with the following noun) or separable.

The inseparable prepositions are five in number, namely:

bi, "in, by, with," etc. This, when joined with the affixed pronouns 'غربر گهر, دُم , دُم

نت ta, "by" (a particle of swearing).

5 wa, "by" (ditto).

ي لi, "to" (with pronouns this is pointed with fethah).

لاً ka, "like."

min, "like," etc.

All prepositions take the following nouns in the dependent case.

CONJUNCTIONS.

The conjunctions are-

j wa, "and."

ن fa, "and so" (as a consequence of what has gone before).

رُبُّ rubba, "many a," or, conversely, "but few," is used as as a preposition. It must begin the sentence, and the noun which it governs must be indefinite and qualified by a subsequent adjective; as رُبُّ رَجُل كِرَيم لِقِيتُهُ rubba rajulin kerīmin laķītuhu, "many a generous man have I met."

The word "rubba is generally preceded by the conjunction for wa, "and." It may even be omitted, the wa followed by the dependent case having the same meaning.

SYNTAX.

The following are the principal points of Arabic Syntax, and are all which it is necessary to learn or remember.

- 1. Sentences are composed of nouns, verbs, and particles.
- 2. Arabic nouns are all concrete, and do not express abstract ideas.
- 3. The verbs contain a pronoun inherent in the form, which is their real agent (see p. 73).

- $\bar{z} = j\bar{a}$ -a, "He came" (the agent he being contained in the word $\bar{z} = j$.
- يَّزَيُّ Zeidun, "I mean Zeid" (Zeid being the name of the agent إَسَّمُ ٱلْفَاعِلِ , and therefore in apposition with it).
- il kerīmu, "The generous one" (also in apposition with the agent or with the name).
- 4. When one noun defines or determines another, the state of dependence is indicated by the dependent case; as كِتَابُ ٱلرَّبُجُلِ 'the book of the man.'

The indefinite nature of a noun is expressed by tenwin, and the definite nature of a noun by the loss of the tenwin; or, if it stand by itself, except it be a proper name, by the addition of the article.

When it has neither tenwin nor article we may know that, unless it be a proper name, it is connected with the noun which immediately follows it.

5. A sentence consists of a subject and predicate; that is, of the thing about which we are going to speak, and of some statement concerning it; as

Subject. Predicate.

"Zeidun ķā-imun, "Zeid (is) standing." زَيْدٌ قَالَمْ

Both subject and predicate are put in the subjective case.

The simple logical copula "is" is generally omitted; if emphasis be required, the pronoun is used to supply its place; as Zeidun hūwa kā-imun, "Zeid ho (is) standing."

The predicate may consist of or contain a verb; as defined as defined as a defined as the struck," This is properly "He struck," namely "Zeid." The agent "he" being contained in the verb, and the name of such agent being subsequently mentioned for the sake of clearness, it follows that the natural order of words is to place the so-called agent after the verb.

But if the verb be active or transitive, there must also be an object on which the action falls; as مُرَبُ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا dharaba Zeidun amran, "Zeid struck Amr."

The object is put in the objective case.

If the verb be neuter or intransitive, further explanation may be needed as to the state or condition of the agent; as kāma Zeidun musrizan, "Zeid rose hastily."

The state or condition of the person or thing spoken of is always expressed by the objective case.

If, instead of merely telling something about the subject, as "Zeid (is) standing," we wish to express existence in a state of—or, the fact of becoming, that is, of assuming a certain condition,—it is clear that by the rule above given such a state must be expressed by the objective case; as

اَنَ زَيْدٌ قَآنِمًا kāna Zeidun kā-iman, "Zeid was standing." عَانَ زَيْدٌ خَيَّاطًا چَيَّاطًا چَيْدُ خَيَّاطًا چَهُ بَعَيْطًا "Hence we get the rule that كَانَ kāna and similar verbs put the

predicate in the objective case.

The following sentence contains an example of each of the various uses of the objective case:

ضَرَبْتُ أَنَا وَ عَمْرًا زَيْدًا أَمَامَ ٱلْأَمِيرِ يَوْمَ ٱلْجُمْعَةِ ضَرَّبًا شَدِيدًا تَأْدِيبًا لَهُ dharabtu anā wa 'Amran Zeidan amāma 'lamīri yauma 'l-jumeati dharban shadīdan ta-dīban lahu,

- "I struck, conjointly with Amr, Zeid, before the Emír, on Friday, a severe blow by way of correcting him."
- 6. Particles modify the sentence by extending or restricting the action of the verb. Some few, أن inna, "verily," and the like, are exactly the reverse of أن أن kāna, putting the subject in the objective case, and the predicate in the nominative; thus, inna Zeidan la-kā-imun, "verily, Zeid is standing." Here the predicate is introduced by a second or subordinate initial particle أن القرائدة المعارفة المع

inna, "Verily, I am going to speak of my subject."

يُكِدُ Zeidan, qud "Zeid," i.e. in his condition of Zeid (whence the use of the objective case).

لَّهُ الْمَا الْمُ la-kā-imun, "Well—(فَ) he is standing" (which last becomes, as it were, a new predicate, and is therefore properly put in the nominative).

These principles will account for every possible phase of Arabic syntax.

THE SYNTAX OF THE TENSES OF THE VERB.

I. THE PRETERITE.

The preterite denotes a completed act, but the time at which it took place must be defined by the context or by some particle.

Or it may express a foregone conclusion, such as naturally occurs in hypothetical or conditional sentences; as اِنْ قَدْتُ in kumta kumtu, "if you rise, I will rise."

Common use of the preterite in Arabic is in precative sentences; as اللهُ بَقَاءَكُم adāma 'llāhu bakākum, "may God perpetuate your existence!" or in cursing; as لَا بَارَكُ ٱللّٰهُ فِيكُم abāraka 'llāhu fīkum, "may God not bless you!"

The preterite of the verb كَانَ kāna with the preterite of another verb is equivalent to the pluperfect; as كَانَ زَيْدٌ قَامَ kāna Zeidun kāma, "Zeid had stood up."

But both the perfect and pluperfect are more usually expressed by the preterite preceded by the particle ikad, with or without the conjunction wa.

II. THE AORIST.

The Aorist denotes an act not yet completed. Like the

preterite, it is somewhat indeterminate in respect of time, until defined by the context or by particles.

THE SYNTAX OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD OF VERBS.

The agrist of a verb, as we have seen (pp. 74-75), changes its final vowel 2 into 2 to express the subjunctive mood.

The change takes place when the verb is preceded by any one of the following particles:

- 1. نَّ an, "that."
- 2. نَا lan = (نَّ أَنْ) =نَّ 'it will not happen that'') = "certainly not."
 - 3. نَيْ اللَّهُ أَنْ =) "then." (إِذْ أَنْ =)

The agrist of the verb loses its final vowel altogether.

1. After لَمْ lam, "not," and لَمْ lammā, "not yet," which always give a past negative sense to the aorist; as

After in, "if," and similar particles, both verbs lose their final vowel; as

in taksal takhsar, "If you are lazy you will come to want."

THE AGENT AND THE VERB.

The agent is put in the subjective case.

The agent follows the verb, and the object of the action follows the agent; as فَرَبُ زَيْدٌ عَمْرًا dharaba Zeidun amran, "Zeid struck Amr."

When the agent is, grammatically speaking, masculine, of no matter what number, the verb is put in the masculine singular. With a feminine agent the verb is properly put in the feminine singular.

But if the agent be not really feminine, but only feminine from a grammatical point of view, either the masculine or feminine verb may be used, according as the speaker keep the feminine idea in his mind, or not, from the first; as

For the same reason, even when the agent is really feminine, provided a word intervenes between it and the verb, either form may be used.

When a second verb occurs referring to the same agent, such verb agrees with it logically in gender, number, and person.

THE SUBJECT OF A PASSIVE VERB.

The same rules which apply to the agent of an active verb apply to the subject of a passive verb.

When a verb which governs with a preposition is put in the passive voice, as غَنْ فَعُنْ baḥatha anhu, "he disputed about it," the preposition with its case is still retained; as buḥitha anhu, "it was disputed about." The verb is then strictly impersonal, and therefore, in forming the passive participle, the masculine form only is used, the pronoun alone being altered to express the gender; thus

أَكْبَكُوثُ عَنْهُ almabḥūthu إِanhu, "The thing (masculine) disputed about."

almabḥūthu eanhā, "The thing (feminine) disputed about."

Nouns in Construction.

Of the First of two Nouns in Construction.

Of two nouns in construction, the first invariably loses its tenwin.

The use of the construct form of nouns will be understood from the following examples:

غُلَمُ ٱلرَّجُلِ <u>gh</u>ulāmu 'rrajuli, "The slave of the man." غُلَمُ ٱلرَّجُلِ <u>gh</u>ulāmu rajulin, "The slave of a man."

Here the loss of the tenwin makes the word 'phulamu definite in both instances (see p. 96); it is not necessary, therefore, further to define it by prefixing the article. Hence the first of two nouns in a state of construction does not require the article.

THE VOCATIVE CASE.

The vocative case is indicated by the particle $\bigcup_{i} y\bar{a}$, and is generally put in the direct case.

If, however, the noun is in construction, it is put in the objective; as

يَا عَبُدُ ٱللَّهِ yā 'Abd allāhi, "Oh, 'Abdallah (servant of God)!"

When the object called to is undefined or not present, or not directly addressed, it is also put in the objective case.

When the noun has the article prefixed, ایه aiyuhā (masc.) and ایه aiyatuhā (fem.) are used instead of یا yā.

RELATIVE SENTENCES.

Relative sentences are expressed as follows:

ألَّذِي elladhī is for definite antecedents only; for indefinite man, "who?" and الله mā, "what?" are used. In interrogation the demonstrative pronoun is added; as أَنَّ man dhā, "who is that?" أنَّ mā dhā, "what is that?"

The article $\iint el$ is regarded as a relative.

EMPHASIS.

It may, however, be repeated separately in its nominative form; as

"marartu bika anta, "I passed by thee—thee."

The usual way in all cases is to repeat the pronoun in its detached form; as

"Thou hast struck—thou." مُرَبَّتَ أَنْتَ

My—thy—him—her—its—self, etc., are expressed by the words نَفْتُ nafs, "self" or "soul," and نَفْتُ 'ain, "eye" or

"essence," with the affixed pronouns. نَفْتُ nafe agrees in number with the noun; as

يَّ نَفْسَهُ Zeidun nafsuhu, "Zeid himself."

We may also say بنفسه binafsihi, in proprid persond.

ADMIRATION.

There are many forms of expressing admiration in Arabic, but they belong rather to the province of the vocabulary. Two, however, may be regularly derived from any root, namely,

(1) \vec{b} \vec{a} \vec{b} \vec{a} \vec{b} \vec{a} \vec{b} \vec{b} \vec{a} \vec{b} \vec{b}

(1) مَا أَفْعَلَ mā afeala takes the accusative of the thing admired; as

" أَخْسَنَ زَبْدًا mā aḥsana Zeidan, "How handsome is Zeid!" مَمَا أَخْسَنَهُ أَخْسَنَهُ mā aḥsanahu, "How handsome he is!"

(2) أَفْعِلُ بِ $af_{\xi}il\ bi$ governs the thing admired in the genitive by the preposition $\dot{b}i$; as

َ aḥsin bi Zeidin, "How handsome is Zeid!" أَحْسِنَ بِزَيِدٍ akrim bihi, "How noble he is!"

The thing admired must immediately follow the forms مَا أَفْعَلَ $af_{\xi}ala$ and $af_{\xi}ala$

The preceding pages contain all the most important facts of Arabic Accidence and Syntax; other locutions which may be met with will be found explained in the lexicons.

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